CRITICAL REVIEW;

OR,

ANNALS OF LITERATURE.

THE

CRITICAL REVIEW;

OR,

Annals of Literature;

EXTENDED AND IMPROVED.

BY

A SOCIETY OF GENTLEMEN.

A NEW ARRANGEMENT.

VOLUME the TWENTY-NINTH.

——— NOTHING EXTENUATE,
NOR SET DOWN AUGHT IN MALICE. SHAKSP.

QUALIS AB INCEPTO. HOR.

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THE

CRITICAL REVIEW.

M A Y, 1800.

Obſervations on a Tour through the Highlands and Part of the Weſtern Iſles of Scotland, particularly Staffa and Icolmkill: to which are added, a Deſcription of the Falls of the Clyde, of the Country round Moffat, and an Analyſis of its Mineral Waters. By T. Garnett, M. D. &c. Illuſtrated by a Map, and Fifty-two Plates, engraved in the Manner of Aquatinta, from Drawings taken on the Spot by W. H. Watts, Miniature and Landſcape Painter, who accompanied the Author in his Tour. 2 Vols. 4to. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Cadell *and* Davies. 1800.

THERE are few roads, however beaten, which will not furniſh ſome ſupply to a judicious gleaner. This ſecluded part of Great-Britain, long known only by fame as a country wild, intereſting, and pictureſque, has, within about thirty years, been viſited by numerous travellers. Beſides Dr. Johnſon, Mr. Gilpin as a pictureſque touriſt, Mr. Pennant as a naturaliſt and antiquary, Mr. Knox as a ſtatiſtical ſurveyor, Mr. Lettice and Capt. Newte as more general obſervers, Faujas de St. Fond as a mineralogiſt, have reſpectively publiſhed their remarks; while the numerous inquiries of Sir John Sinclair, from each pariſh, have filled almoſt every little lacuna, which haſte, inattention, or inaccurate information, might have left unexplored, as well as ſupplied minute deficiencies in points which can never be the objects of mere travellers. A gleaning can only remain; but the gleanings of an able inquirer will be always reſpectable. We indeed wiſh that Dr. Garnett had confined himſelf to this department. His volumes, though leſs ample, would have been more intereſting: his remarks would have more frequently had the recommendation of novelty. At preſent, we meet with many obſervations copied from his predeceſſors, whole pages tranſcribed from works well known; nor can the apology offered, that the tranſactions recorded render each ſpot more intereſting, excuſe this plagiariſm, ſince the end might be obtained by mentioning the event, and referring to the reſpective authors for the circum-

ſtances. In other reſpects, we can cheerfully praiſe Dr. Garnett. His deſcriptions are clear and intelligible, without the obſcurity, we had almoſt ſaid the cant, of the picturesque touriſt. On the ſame ſpot, we receive clearer and more diſcriminated ideas from our author, than even from Mr. Gilpin. To his merit as a mineralogiſt he adds that of a botaniſt; and, though more conciſe than Mr. Pennant as an antiquary, or than St. Fond as a mineralogiſt, his information is ſufficiently minute and intereſting. In ſhort, had he gleaned only, we could have followed him with pleaſure: as the copyiſt, we have yawned over his pages, as over a tale twice told.

Dr. Garnett begins with ſpots equally intereſting and beautiful: the grand dignity of Dunbarton, the beauties of Inverary and Loch Lomond, and the majeſtic ſcenery of the paſſes which lead to the Highlands, arreſt very early the reader's attention. The lakes on the weſt, the projected canal of Crinan, and the diſtreſſes occaſioned by a miſtaken policy of government in the weſtern iſlands, inſtanced in that of Mull, furniſh ſcenes and ſpeculations of a very different kind. On his return from Mull, he proceeded northward along the lakes to Inverneſs, paſſing the lines formed by Fort William and Fort Auguſtus, and then returned, after a ſhort excurſion weſtward to Loch Tay, to Perth. He next proceeded to Loch Leven; and, croſſing the Forth at Stirling, returned weſtward, near his former line, in the neighbourhood of Benlomond. He cloſed his tour at Glaſgow, after extending it a little to Moffat.

Curious travellers will at once perceive, that, in this route, Dr. Garnett viſited the moſt intereſting ſcenes which the Highlands offer; nor can they doubt, that, with the aſſiſtance of his predeceſſors, though he has often too cloſely followed their ſteps, many valuable obſervations muſt have been collected.

In this tour, the great improvements, by means of canals, firſt offer themſelves to our notice. That which joins the Forth to the Clyde is a moſt ſtupendous work, not well underſtood in this country. It furniſhes a communication, acroſs the whole iſland, not leſs important in a political than in a commercial view. Perhaps, to have enlarged it, might have rendered the undertaking too vaſt, as a part of the canal is ſtill raiſed on aqueducts; but it cannot eſcape even ordinary obſervers, that it muſt have been a work of ſtill greater importance, if it would have admitted a veſſel of war. The canal of Crinan, intended to paſs from the weſtern coaſts of Argyleſhire to the Clyde, without doubling the Mull of Cantire, will be of the greateſt importance to the laborious Hebridian. The chain of lakes, however, which we have

described as Dr. Garnett's northern boundary, may perhaps with more advantage be adopted as the warlike communication between the eastern and western oceans. These lakes, surrounded by higher grounds, form a deep glen, known by a Gaelic name which bears this signification. Through a great part of the way, the water is already of a considerable depth, and there is a sufficient supply for the remaining part of the canal from the adjacent hills; nor is there any reason to think, that a very great difference in the level exists, except what arises from the greater elevation of the eastern above the western seas, which is supposed to amount only to about ten feet.

These are the leading principles of the great changes that have been proposed, or have taken place in the country, in order to facilitate the communication between the different parts; changes, which must greatly improve the face of this part of the island when they have fully taken effect; nor can we suppose, from the public spirit which pervades all ranks, and the fostering hand of government, that these improvements will be very distant. The completion of the canal of Crinan, on a lower, but not less useful scale, will not, we trust, be long delayed. It is now stopped, we are informed, for want of supplies.

The description of the canal joining the Clyde with the Forth, which led us to these speculations, we will add from the work.

'This canal displays, in a striking view, what can be effected by the art and perseverance of man. Its extreme length, from the Forth to the Clyde, is thirty-five miles, beginning at the mouth of the Carron on the east, and ending in the Clyde near Kilpatrick, on the west coast of Scotland. It rises and falls 160 feet, by means of thirty-nine locks, twenty of which are on the east side of the summit, and nineteen on the west; for the tide does not ebb so low in the Clyde as in the Forth by nine feet. There are eighteen draw-bridges, and fifteen aqueduct-bridges of considerable size. About five miles from Kilpatrick, the canal crosses the river Kelvin, and is carried over a valley by means of an aqueduct-bridge, consisting of four arches, sixty-five feet high, and four hundred and twenty in length. The situation of this bridge is very picturesque, and exhibits a striking effort of human ingenuity and labour.

'Vessels of very considerable size, for instance those drawing eight feet water, and not exceeding nineteen feet beam, and seventy-three in length, can pass with great ease along this canal.

'This amazing work will unquestionably be found of great national utility; by means of it, a tedious and dangerous navigation, north about, from the eastern to the western coast, is

avoided, which is at all times desirable; but in winter, and in time of war, a very important object. It will likewise contribute very considerably to the improvement of the country through which it passes, by giving an easy and cheap carriage to its produce, and will greatly conduce to the establishment of manufactures, by affording so excellent a conveyance of the raw material and manufactured goods, as well as coal, without which it is almost impossible for any manufacture to be carried on to a great extent.' Vol. i. P. 3.

'To supply such a canal with water, was itself a great work; for this purpose, one reservoir has been formed, which is twenty-four feet deep, and covers fifty acres; there is another in the neighbourhood of Kilsyth, the depth of which is twenty-two feet, and which extends over a space of seventy acres. This last reservoir was formed at an inconsiderable expence, in comparison of the surface and quantity of water which it contains; the engineer having taken advantage of an extensive hollow, which seemed as if scooped out on purpose by the hand of nature. At one part only of this hollow, there was a deep opening 100 feet wide at the bottom, and 200 yards at the top; by filling up this to the height of about twenty-five feet, the work was at once completed; and by leaving a sluice in the center, it can be filled and emptied at pleasure. The whole is ornamented with plantations, and finished in a neat and masterly manner, and forms perhaps one of the largest and most beautiful artificial sheets of water in the kingdom.' Vol. i. P. 5.

The rock of Dunbarton is a black stone, which Dr. Garnett, after St. Fond, describes as a basaltic lava: but these gentlemen may be said to have volcanic eyes, which see every thing in this peculiar light. Staffa is, indeed, partly volcanic; but we cannot admit that the columns of Staffa, or those of Antrim, are wholly the effect of fire; and it is remarkable, that, in the comparative analysis of basaltes and lava, copied from Bergman, there is no mention of the proportion of air. Lava, we know, affords a very small quantity; that basaltes is equally deficient in this respect has not been shown; but we know that Bergman considered basaltes as a kind of trap, not the production of fire. Since Mr. Kirwan's arguments have been fully considered, the igneous origin of basaltic columns has been doubted; and Dr. Garnett eludes the objections in a curious way. While he considers basaltic columns as volcanic, he still supposes the figure to be the effect of retraction, on the conversion of the substance to a solid, from a state of fluidity; comparing it to the prismatic forms of starch. But this retraction be [illegible] from a previous solution of the substance, *in caloric*. The curved columns seem to us strongly

adverſe to the igneous ſyſtem. We can eaſily ſuppoſe that they may aſſume this form in drying; but, when a ſubſtance is ſufficiently heated to cryſtalliſe, it muſt be too near a ſtate of fluidity to admit a permanent curvature; and, when cryſtalliſed, it will be at once ſolid. Curved cryſtals, in any of the regular proceſſes of cryſtalliſation, have never, we believe, been noticed.

From Dunbarton, the author croſſed the Leven. We ought not to omit mentioning the column erected to the memory of Dr. Smollett, the parent and the earlieſt active ſupporter of this journal. He might regret, with Dr. Garnett, the loſs of the paſtoral ſcenery of his native vale, and the change which it has experienced from thoſe ſources of immorality and diſſipation, manufactures and commerce; but he could not lament the change from gloomy diſcontent, uncultivated mountains, and frequent famine, to cheerfulneſs, ſmiling verdure, and regular ſupplies: ſuch, in many parts of Scotland, is the true reflexion of the altered features.

Loch Lomond's beautiful ſcenery, the ſplendor of the caſtle, and the whole of the country round, are known from various deſcriptions. We need not fill our pages with what is found in every deſcriptive tour. Benlomond, the neighbouring mountain, is granite, interſperſed with quartz, and occaſionally with micaceous ſchiſtus; and we may add, that almoſt the whole of the weſtern part of Scotland conſiſts of granite. Some of the iſlands, particularly Icolmkill, afford marble. The view from Benlomond we ſelect as a ſpecimen of our author's deſcriptive talents.

'Having breakfaſted early the next morning, and the appearance of the weather being favourable, we ſet out for the top of Benlomond, accompanied by a ſon of our landlord, a civil and intelligent young man, who ſerves as a guide to thoſe that viſit the mountain. He took with him ſome biſcuits and a bottle of whiſky, a precaution abſolutely neceſſary to enable a perſon to climb a ſteep aſcent of ſix miles. We conſumed near three hours in aſcending, as I wiſhed to examine the vegetable productions in our way. When we had got about four miles up the ſide, which is two thirds of the way, we ſaw clouds floating below us on the lake, which ſometimes obſcured a great part of its ſurface; and we ſeveral times found ourſelves involved in light fleecy clouds, which however did not feel ſenſibly damp.

'At length we gained the ſummit, and were fortunate in finding ſcarce a cloud within our extenſive horizon. The view from the mountain is beyond conception grand and intereſting: at the bottom is ſeen the beautiful lake, ſtretched out like a map, its iſlands having loſt their rugged forms, and appearing as flat ſurfaces amid the bright expanſe. The banks of the lake are ſeen,

ornamented with gentlemen's ſeats and cultivated grounds. Looking towards the eaſt, the rich plains of Lothian and Stirlingſhire are diſtinctly ſpread out to the ſight: caſting our eyes from thence to the ſouth, and purſuing the view towards the weſt, the high grounds of Lanerkſhire, the vales of Renfrewſhire, with the Firth of Clyde, and the wide Atlantic with its iſlands, are clearly diſcerned; while the Iſle of Man and the coaſt of Ireland, blend as it were with the ſky, being ſcarcely diſcernible. But to one unaccuſtomed to highland ſcenery, the moſt ſtriking view is undoubtedly on the north ſide, which may with truth be termed horribly or fearfully ſublime. The eye, from where it firſt diſcerns the Ochil Hills, near the eaſt, ranging along the north, till it comes near the weſtern ocean, ſees nothing but mountain upon mountain, elevating their ſummits in almoſt every variety of ſhape. In this ſtupendous range our guide pointed out to us Benevis, the higheſt hill in Britain, Benlawers, Benvorlich, and Cruachan to the north; and to the ſouth-weſt, Goatfield, a high hill in the Iſle of Arran, and the Paps of Jura. To the north-eaſt, in the vallies between the mountains, we perceived ſeveral of the lakes in Perthſhire like emboſſed mirrors. Among theſe were Loch Catharine, Lochard, and Loch-Monteith.

'From the north ſide of Benlomond, ſprings the famous Forth; here an inconſiderable rill, that a child might ſtep over: very ſoon, however, the torrents conſtantly pouring down from the mountains, increaſe it to the ſize of a ſmall brook, which winds its way through the valley, now and then expanding into a little lake. What is remarkable in this river, is, that even at its origin it winds juſt in the ſame manner, as, when become more majeſtic, it paſſes through the Carſe of Stirling.' Vol. i. P. 54.

'We were not long permitted to indulge in the contemplation of the ſublime ſcenery around us; we had ſcarce been half an hour on the ſummit of the mountain, when we ſaw clouds rolling majeſtically far below us; now covering the ſurface of the lake, and now hiding the ſurrounding mountains; dark ſtreams of rain poured down from them into the vallies, and the whole formed as ſublime a ſcene as is poſſible to contemplate, unleſs when in addition you ſee the lightning's flaſh, and hear the thunder roll under your feet; which not unfrequently is the caſe. In a ſhort time the air, which had been comfortably warm, became ſuddenly chill:—a dark black cloud from the weſtern mountains came ſlowly towards us, and in a few minutes began to precipitate upon us its contents, in the form of hail, ſleet, and heavy rain. We ſheltered ourſelves as well as we could under the ſhelvings of ſome rocks, but ſtill were completely wet. The cold grew intenſe, and I wiſhed that I had taken a thermometer with me, to have aſcertained the degree of it. When the ſtorm was over, we deſcended by a route ſomewhat different, with a view of botaniſing. While on the top of the moun-

tain, we obſerved that the rain, which came down in perpendicular ſtreams from the clouds, went along the vallies, following in general their ſeveral windings among the hills; the clouds moſt probably being driven in thoſe directions in which the current of air met with the leaſt impediments, which would certainly be along the vallies.

'On our return to Rowardennen, we found that a great deal of rain had fallen during our abſence.

'The perpendicular height of Benlomond above the ſurface of the lake is 3,240 feet; and the average height of the lake above the ſea, 22 feet, which, added to the former height, gives the perpendicular altitude of the mountain above the level of the ſea, 3,262 feet. In height it is ſurpaſſed by Benevis, Benlawers, and ſome other mountains; but the difference is more than compenſated by the elegance of its inſulated ſituation, with reſpect to the neighbouring hills: its form being that of a huge truncated cone, and its appearance, from whatever part it is viewed, much more noble and magnificent than that of the juſt mentioned hills. The lower parts of the mountain, on the ſide next the lake, are finely ſkirted with wood.' Vol. i. p. 58.

'The alchemilla alpina, or cinquefoil ladies' mantle, grows upon all the upper part of the mountain. The ſibbaldia procumbens, or procumbent ſilver-weed, diſtinguiſhed by its tridentate leaves, grows in great quantity, even on the very ſummit. The ſilene acaulis, or moſs catchfly, the leaves of which form a beautiful green turf, like a carpet, which is variegated with a fine purple flower, grows in large patches. The rubus chamæmorus, or cloud-berry, is found in great quantities, about half way up the ſouth-eaſt ſide of the mountain: the bloſſoms of this plant are of a purpliſh white, ſucceeded by a bunch of red berries, which are ripe in July, and have a flavour by no means unpleaſant. Theſe berries are much eſteemed by many northern nations, but probably for want of finer fruits. The Laplanders bury them under the ſnow, and thus preſerve them from one year to another. They bruiſe and eat them with the milk of the rein-deer. (Withering's Botany.) The azalea procumbens, or trailing roſebay, the ſmalleſt of woody plants, was firſt found here by Dr. Stuart of Luſs, but is not very plentiful. The trientalis Europæa, or chickweed wintergreen, the only Britiſh plant of the claſs Heptandria, grows in the woods near the baſe of the mountain. The pinguicula vulgaris; nartheſium oſſifragum; and thymus acinos, likewiſe abound. Very near the inn of Rowardennen are to be found great quantities of the droſera rotundifolia, or round-leaved ſundew, and droſera anglica, or great ſundew. Theſe plants catch flies, by ſhutting up their leaves, and cruſhing them to death: in this they reſemble the dionæa muſcipula, or American fly-eater. For a more particular

account of the Droſera, ſee Withering's Botany, vol. ii. p. 325.' Vol. i. p. 62.

The lochs in this neighbourhood, which communicate with the ſea, abound in herrings; and, in Loch Fyne, the quantity caught and cured is ſaid to amount annually to upwards of twenty thouſand barrels, each containing about ſeven hundred fiſh, valued at twenty-five ſhillings. We truſt that Dr. Garnett's repreſentation will take off the remaining reſtrictions on ſalt, that this uſeful condiment may be procured more eaſily, free of duty. Much of the miſery of the Highlanders would be thus relieved. The cultivation of the potatoe has been highly uſeful, as the moiſt ſeaſon, which deſtroys the Highlander's little harveſt, is favourable to this nutritious root: with this and herrings they may ſubſiſt after the worſt harveſts.

In the Urchay, which falls into Loch Awe, is a valuable ſalmon-fiſhery; and the neighbouring mountain, Cruachan, rears its majeſtic head on the north-weſtern ſide: it is the fabulous ſource of the Loch, in height three thouſand three hundred and ninety feet, and in circumference twenty miles. The great body of the mountain is compoſed of a reddiſh porphyry; but, near the bottom, is found argillaceous ſchiſtus, interſected by veins of quartz and lapis ollaris. In this part of the tour there ſeem to be many peat-moſſes, which were formerly lakes. At Oban, our author recommends the eſtabliſhment of a royal dock or arſenal, as expeditions might be ſent thence with eaſe and ſecreſy, ſince a weſtward courſe would not require winds from ſo many different quarters as are neceſſary to clear the Channel. Milford Haven, were it capable of being fortified, would however be a more convenient ſpot. Oban is too diſtant from the ſeat of government.

From our author's viſit to Mull, we derive little addition to our ſtock of information reſpecting the country, the manners, or the ſuperſtitions of the Hebridians. We obſerve that he endeavours to revive the credit of the fabulous Oſſian. In mentioning the Celtic ſongs, he remarks, 'that, in the glens of Mull, there are perſons who can repeat ſeveral entire poems of Oſſian; of this,' he adds, 'I have been aſſured by the miniſters, and other gentlemen of veracity.' On another occaſion he reſumes the ſubject in the following manner, deſcribing Glencoe, the glen of the Coe, the Cona of Oſſian.

'Nor were our expectations, though highly raiſed by the reports we had heard, in any degree diſappointed. The ſteep and rugged mountains, on whoſe ſides the blue miſts hung, and which were worn into deep furrows by the rapid currents that tumble down

them, together with the fertile valley, and the river winding through it, render this glen awfully grand and picturesque in an uncommon degree. The accompanying print will give a tolerable idea of this stupendous scene, though it is next to impossible to convey on a small scrap of paper any adequate notion of its grandeur. On the right is Malmor, a mountain celebrated by Ossian; on the left, Con Fion, or the hill of Fingal. The valley is closed by some other grotesque mountains, which were almost covered with mist, and which seem to shut the inhabitants of this romantic glen completely from the world.

'This celebrated glen was the birth-place of Ossian, as would appear from several passages in the poems of that bard. Any poetical genius who had spent the early days of his life in this glen must have had the same or similar ideas, and would have painted them in the same manner that Ossian has done; for he would here see nothing but grand and simple imagery—the blue mists hanging on the hills—the sun peeping through a cloud—the raging of the storm, or the fury of the torrent.

'This glen was frequently the resort of Fingal and his party. It seems to me wonderful, that any person who has travelled in the highlands, should doubt the authenticity of the Celtic poetry, which has been given to the English reader by Macpherson: since in almost every glen are to be found persons who can repeat from tradition several of these, and other Celtic tales of the same date. I cannot pretend to offer any evidence stronger than what has been brought forward. I trust, however, that the following extract from a letter which I received from Dr. Mac Intire of Glenorchay, on this subject, will not be uninteresting to the reader:

"To the mass of evidence laid already before the public, by persons of the first respectability in the nation, I know of little that can be added. These tales we have been accustomed to hear recited from our earliest years, and they have made an indelible impression on my memory. In the close of the year 1783, and beginning of 1784, I was in London: for some time previous to that period, I had a correspondence with Mr. Macpherson, but not on subjects of Celtic literature. During two months that I continued in London, I was frequently with him at his own house, and elsewhere. We spoke occasionally about the poems, and the attempt made by Dr. Johnson to discredit them. I hinted, that though my own belief of their authenticity was unalterably fixed, still my opinion ever was, that he had never found the poem of Fingal, in the full and perfect form in which he had published it; but that having got the substance, or greatest part of the interesting tale, he had, from his knowledge of Celtic imagery and allusions, filled up the chasms in the translation. He replied, 'You are much mistaken in the matter—I had occasion to do less of that than you suppose—and at any time that you are at leisure, and wish to see the originals, tell me, and we will concert a day for going to my

house on Putney-heath, where these papers lie, and you will then be satisfied.' This conversation passed in presence of Dr. Shaw, a Scots physician, to whom he introduced me.

"I fully intended to avail myself of this offer, but have to regret that, from various avocations, and leaving London sooner than I thought I could, I was prevented from a sight and perusal of the original of these poems.

"Calling the day before I left London on the late general MacNab, a gentleman well versed in Celtic literature, and of unimpeached veracity and honour, who had lived long in habits of intimacy with Mr. Macpherson, I mentioned this circumstance to him, and my regret: he said he was sorry I had not seen the poems; that to him Mr. Macpherson had often recited parts of Fingal in the Gaelic, with various other tales, which brought to his remembrance what had given him so much gratification when a boy.' Vol. i. p. 283.

We wish not to revive this controversy, but must not suffer reasoning so vague and inconclusive to become important for want of censure. It is well known, that many can repeat entire poems *attributed* to Ossian, but not the poet of the fourth century, as the early translators wished their readers to believe. The poems recited are beautiful and wild, but frequently absurd and superstitious. Many detached parts are the same with those which were published by Mr. Macpherson; but it would be difficult to find poems of considerable length not debased by gross follies and the most ridiculous legends. In the passage transcribed there is a singular, guarded, peculiarity. 'It seems wonderful' (Dr. Garnett says) 'that any person who has travelled in the Highlands should doubt the authenticity of the Celtic poetry, *which has been given to the English reader by Macpherson,*' &c. Indeed this is the whole subject of doubt. No one, who has travelled there, doubts the existence of Celtic songs; but every one believes that the form and the embellishments have often been the work of the translator. We know that Mr. Macpherson had originals; but as such originals could not be procured *in a connected form* by others, they were supposed to owe much to his plastic hand, and every evidence that could be obtained added ten centuries to the æra of the reputed Ossian. The latter part of the argument is too trifling for remark. Dr. Garnett forgets to inform us that the appellation of Fingal's Cave in Staffa is equivocal, and that the real meaning is the harmonious cavern.

The miseries of the Highlanders are detailed at a painful length, and emigration is no longer surprising. This part of our author's tour merits particular notice; for the wretched situation of the inhabitants of these barren districts, where the

ſcanty ſun, which their ſhort ſummer affords, is often clouded by deſtructive ſhowers, and the labour of the year deſtroyed in one fatal week, ſhould draw forth the foſtering hand of their natural protectors, the chiefs, and even attract the more general attention of government. Dr. Garnett has pointed out the proper methods in which each may exert his power: hitherto each has added to the difficulties which the ungenial climate produces.

Staffa and Icolmkill have been too often deſcribed to admit novelty of deſcription. The grand baſaltic pillars of the former were firſt noticed by Sir Joſeph Banks; but on this ſubject we have already enlarged. Icolmkill muſt be ſtill viewed with religious veneration, as the retreat of learning at a period when brutal violence checked, or uncivilifed ignorance obſcured, every improvement, every opening talent of the human mind. We ſee only the traces of what it was; but theſe are impoſing and attractive. We will add the only novelties which occur in this part of the work.

'To the naturaliſt, this iſland is almoſt as intereſting as to the antiquarian. The greateſt part of the iſland conſiſts of lime-ſtone; in ſome places it appears in the form of a very fine white marble, in others dove-coloured: beſides the different pebbles mentioned in Porta-currach, ſome large blocks of jaſper are found. Though Icolmkill is a ſecondary iſland, none of the primitive rocks being found in it, except in looſe maſſes, yet the neighbouring ſmall iſland, ſeparated from Icolmkill by a very narrow ſound, conſiſts almoſt entirely of a coarſe-grained red granite, reſembling the Egyptian; with this granite, as has been obſerved, part of the ſacred edifices have been conſtructed, as well as the huts of the preſent inhabitants. This iſland is called the Iſle of Nuns, becauſe the nuns reſided here before Columba allowed them to ſettle in I.

'In the Bay of Martyrs is found hornblende, and in different parts of the iſland green and red jaſper, with ſome ſpecimens of zeolite. We have a curious ſpecimen of zeolite inveſting limeſtone, in the muſeum of Anderſon's Inſtitution, which came from this iſland. The zeolite is in the form of the wax of a honeycomb, having the cells filled with limeſtone.

In the botanical kingdom is found the pulmonaria maritima, or ſea bugloſs, a beautiful plant, the bloſſoms of which are pink before they expand, but immediately change to a fine blue. The eryngium maritimum, or ſea holly; theſe two plants grow plentifully on the north ſhore of the iſland, between Porta-currach and the hill of angels. The cotyledon umbilicus, or navel-wort, grows on almoſt every part of the ruins, both of the nunnery and cathedral. The menyanthes trifoliatum, or marſh trefoil, one of the moſt beautiful of our native flowers, and diſtinguiſhed

by its woolly petals, grows in great plenty in the pond above the cathedral. A confiderable part of the fkirts of Dun-y is covered with the anagallis tenella, or purple-flowered money-wort. The juniperus communis, or juniper tree, is common on moft of the hills, though of a very dwarfifh fize. The falix Lapponum, or Lapland willow, a very fcarce fhrub, grows not far from the marble quarry.' Vol. i. P. 267.

Dr. Garnett expatiates on the impropriety and impolicy of converting the Highlands to fheep-walks, fince population forms the moft effential riches of a nation, and a farm converted to fheep-walks requires comparatively few inhabitants. We doubt, however, whether his reafoning on this fubject will bear the teft of rigorous examination. The few that attend the fheep prove only a depopulation in a bleak barren country, where a greater number could fcarcely fupport themfelves, while the fleeces of their flock fupply labour for numerous others, in more genial foils; fo that in reality population gains, and the fum of happinefs is much greater. The active energies which fhould fill our fleets and armies are indeed loft; but enough will remain to fupply victims for ambition; and we know from fad experience that the manufacturer will not on that account be a worfe foldier. When we reflect, too, on what we have lately had occafion to notice refpecting the neceffity of Spanifh wool, and on what is now paffing in the houfe of commons, we may confider a more ample fupply of wool as a moft defirable acceffion.

Few have travelled in Scotland without vifiting the Fall of Foyers, a cafcade from a greater height than that of Niagara. Our author has illuftrated it with two plates, and given an exact ftatement of the height. That of the upper fall is feventy feet, and that of the lower two hundred and twelve, while the fall of Niagara is only one hundred and forty feet.

Of the remainder of the travels, from Invernefs fouthward, we fhall give, in a future number, a particular account, and then defcribe the beautiful decorations with which this tour is illuftrated.

The Sovereign. Addreffed to his Imperial Majefty Paul, Emperour of all the Ruffias. By Charles Small Pybus, M. P. one of the Lords Commiffioners of the Treafury. Folio.* 1*l.* 1*s.* *Boards.* White. 1800.

THE magnificence of this volume is anfwerable to its title. The folio fize, the ample margin, the jetty ink, and

* 'A *fmall* poet,' fay the critical punfters.

the cream-coloured paper; the beautiful frontiſpiece, where, like the croſs that converted Conſtantine, the Ruſſian crown hovers in heaven over the name of Paul, a deſign vague and unmeaning as a dream, and yet beautiful; all theſe may be expected when a lord of the treaſury writes a poem to an emperor.

The poem is dedicated to the king, becauſe he ſo eminently reſembles his magnanimous ally, and becauſe 'the author would probably have been leſs captivated with the character of a foreign prince, if his ſentiments had not been habitually formed under the influence of that example, which is the pride and ornament of the Britiſh throne.' *Dedication.*

In the opening lines the emperor is thus addreſſed:

'O thou, great monarch of a pow'rful reign,
That more than doubles Europe's whole domain!
Whom larger empires own their ſov'reign lord,
Than bow'd before the Macedonian ſword.
Or gaz'd with trembling at the awful height
Of Rome's proud eagle in her utmoſt flight!
Say, can the ſceptre's blaze, the golden globe,
The brilliant diadem, the gorgeous robe,
The courtly pageant, and the ſplendid train;
The ſtrength of navies riding on the main,
The iron frontier, the embattled coaſt,
The waving banner, and the glitt'ring hoſt;
The dread ſalute of cannon thund'ring loud,
The proſtrate homage of a ſuppliant crowd;
Can all the pomp of pow'r and wealth combin'd
Raiſe up one genuine tranſport in the mind,
With balmy ſoothings tranquilize the breaſt,
Or give the ſlumbers of contented reſt?
No: none of theſe can ſmooth the troubled frown,
Or lull the cares that lurk beneath a crown:
Weak in themſelves alone, their rays diſpenſe
Fallacious ſeemings to the outward ſenſe:
Their mental influence depends on this;
Are theſe the object, or the means of bliſs?
But happy they, thrice happy, who profeſs
Their greateſt bleſſing is the pow'r to bleſs,
Delight in mercy, ſtudy to be juſt,
And hold their ſceptre as a ſacred truſt;
Not as the tyrant's perſecuting rod,
But as the gracious inſtrument of God.
Where can ambition find ſo ſure a way
To change a partial into gen'ral ſway?
For when the duties of his high eſtate
Fill all his thoughts, his actions regulate,

Like him, whose worth adorns his Albion's throne,
The monarch reigns in realms beyond his own:
Through foreign latitudes his pow'r extends,
And only terminates where virtue ends:
From ev'ry clime exulting millions pour
Their golden praise; his cumulating store
Swells with the best of wealth; and hourly draws
The countless tribute of a world's applause.
Hail then, exalted prince, whose high renown
Adds a new jewel to the Russian crown!
Imperial sov'reign, hail! nor thou refuse
This cordial off'ring from an English Muse,
Who free from dread, from adulation free,
Beholds that monarch realiz'd in thee,
Lifts up the voice of truth, and sings from far
The blest descendant of the mighty czar.' P. 9.

Here Mr. Pybus leaves Paul, that he may praise Peter. We must object to the unqualified panegyric here lavished upon this semi-barbarian, this mulatto in civilisation. When Burnet visited him, he offered brandy to the bishop; but this, perhaps, may have been a Russian compliment. 'Other nations (says Kotzebue, in his Benyowsky) have love and wine; these savages have only sensuality and brandy.' By the king's desire, Evelyn accommodated the czar with his house. Every reader knows the delight which Evelyn took in cultivating his garden: he had a friendship for every shrub and every tree which it contained, and he has described his fine holly hedge with rapture. The czar and his Russian attendants laid the garden waste! Peter had acquired civilisation enough to invite foreigners into his service; but so much was he still the Russian, that they who entered his service became his slaves, and could not escape from it.

The father of the present emperor next occupies the poet's attention.

'And thou, ill-fated prince, whom discord gave
An early victim to misfortune's grave,
Whate'er thy frailties were, (and, who has none?)
Amply thy greater virtues shall atone,
Whose heralds on the wings of mercy crost
The trackless deserts of Siberian frost.
Thee, coward cruelty in horrours dight,
And mean suspicion that avoids the light,
And persecution with tormenting flame,
Shall ever execrate, and hate thy name;
While freedom's gratitude and pity's tear
Shall drop a tribute on thy mournful bier.
But Heaven will'd! nor let thy realms deplore
The mix'd event, that left one Peter more.' P. 24.

Who is this one Peter more? Can it be Paul? But let us proceed to the lines that follow.

'Yes! though a woman left; whose genius shone
With czarian lustre on the czarian throne;
And in whose manly reign amazement saw
The bitt'rest comment on the Salick law.
Her acts of publick zeal it well becomes
Historick care to mark in pond'rous tomes;
But where is he, the ablest bards among,
Who hopes to name them in the space of song?
Vain were the task: nor thou, great sov'reign, fear
The Muse shall trespass on thy patient ear
In weak attempts their bearings to rehearse,
Though filial fondness might endure the verse:
Nor can she deem it meet; for should as high
As Pelion pil'd on Ossa volumes lie,
And cloud-capp'd heaps of panegyrick raise,
This couplet would contain their sum of praise;
"The czar's example was her constant aim;
Her deeds were equal, equal is her fame." P. 25.

There is a strange inconsistency in thus praising together Catharine and her husband: the death of the czar is indeed lamented in wary and softened phrase.—'Discord gave him an early victim to misfortune's grave'—it was a 'mixed event:' but no hint of censure is bestowed upon

'The lustful murderess of her wedded lord.'
COLERIDGE.

She is, in the poetical language of Mr. Pybus, *the bitterest comment on the Salick law*, and *one Peter more*. How widely different is this from the high lyric strain that hailed the death of Catharine!

'No more on MURDER's lurid face
Th' insatiate hag shall gloat with drunken eye!
Manes of th' unnumber'd slain!
Ye that gasp'd on Warsaw's plain!
Ye that erst at Ismail's tower,
When human ruin chok'd the streams,
Fell in Conquest's glutted hour,
'Mid women's shrieks and infants' screams,
Whose shrieks, whose screams, were vain to stir
Loud-laughing, red-eyed Massacre!
Spirits of th' uncoffin'd slain,
Sudden blasts of triumph swelling,
Oft at night, in misty train,
Rush around her narrow dwelling!

Th' exterminating Fiend is fled—
(Foul her life, and dark her doom!)
Mighty army of the dead,
Dance, like death-fires, round her tomb!'

COLERIDGE.

And now we come to the great Paul.

'Can pow'r and wealth such cordial transports bring,
As happy subjects to their parent king;
Or all the annals of the world evince
A name more godlike than a patriot prince?
'Yes! there may be; and thanks to Heaven's care,
England and Russia shew us that there are;
There are those princely bosoms, that can feel
The warmest passion for their country's weal,
With Roman ardour burn, and plainly prove
Their fav'rite object is their people's love:
But still, unbounded by that narrow space,
Their sphere of action is the human race;
And their hearts kindle with a gen'rous flame,
Beyond the lustre of a patriot's name.' P. 27.

Wherein consists the similarity of character which Mr. Pybus has discovered between Paul and our gracious sovereign? Paul has protected the emigrants—this also has been done in England, but it has been the honorable act of the nation, not the personal charity of the king. Our sovereign is engaged in a 'just and necessary war,' a *defensive* war, carried on, we are assured by his ministers, only for security. The Russian emperor is engaged in the same cause, but not for the same motives. Uninvaded, unmenaced by France, he volunteers against her; and, however magnanimous this conduct may be deemed, it would be a libel on our sovereign to pretend to discover any parallel between him and the Russian potentate in this respect. Paul is afraid of literature, and consequently hostile to it: by one of his edicts, *all* books that are prohibited in any other country, are *ipso facto* prohibited in Russia. Is not our king the friend and patron of science? Wherein does he resemble Paul? Let Russia be our ally;—let her receive our subsidies, and send us her Cosacks and her Calmucks to fight the cause of religion and of social order. The end sanctifies the means. But, by all that is dear to science and to liberty, by the name of Alfred, by the remembrance of Runnymede—let us have no parallels between England and Russia!

Mr. Pybus proceeds to apostrophise Christianity; but he does not wish to press, upon the great prince whom he addresses, the proof of these doctrines which his deeds confess.

'—— He will act the best, who best can feel.
But there are feelings far beyond the reach
Of all the noblest faculties of speech;
And Greece and Rome must silently submit,
Nor e'en for once avail the pow'rs of Pitt.' P. 29.

These feelings, which neither Greece nor Rome, nor the chancellor of the exchequer, can express, are the sorrow which the emperor Paul felt for the death of his preceptor.

The author then anticipates the deliverance of Europe by the exertion of this

'———— Great monarch of a powerful reign,
That more than doubles Europe's whole domain.'

In the postscript we are told that the brightness of this prospect has faded, and that a *species* of gloomy regret has at once overshadowed the continent of Europe: but this Mr. Pybus could not foresee, and inaccurate prophecy may be excused in a poet.

The concluding lines represent Paul, as well as his mother, to be 'one Peter more.'

'Thus, when entranc'd by intellectual night
The czarian empire lay, with glorious light
Immortal Peter rose—and now, where late,
The dark horizon of a slumb'ring state,
In cold privation of improvement's morn,
Was wrapt in mists of prejudice and scorn,
The dawn of science gleam'd; its warmth began,
And rouz'd the dormant faculties of man.
The torpid soul, that indolent and slow,
With icy current hardly seem'd to flow;
The pulse of reason, that devoid of heat,
In feeble motion stirr'd, nor seem'd to beat;
The heart of glory, that oppress'd by pride,
Had never throbb'd with emulation's tide;
Felt the mild influence of the genial ray,
And rose in vigour with the rising day.
Call'd into action thus, the gen'ral frame,
Throve with new energies, and grew in fame;
And still has grown and strengthen'd, as the sun
Of Russia's majesty his course has run,
Till at the last, in these auspicious days,
Its prime denotes the zenith of his rays,
The full resplendent orb of Paul's meridian blaze.' P. 40.

The poorness of the Greek types in the notes surprised us, in a volume of such typographical elegance. They ought to have resembled the beautiful Greek of Mr. Bedford's Musæus.

After the specimens adduced, it is unnecessary to speak of the merits of this poem. The design and the execution, the sentiments and the language, are such as we expect when a lord of the treasury writes a poem to an emperor.

An impartial and succinct History of the Rise, Declension, and Revival of the Church of Christ; from the Birth of our Saviour to the present Time. With faithful Characters of the principal Personages, ancient and modern. By the Rev. T. Haweis, LL. B. & M. D. 3 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Mawman. 1800.

THIS is a very extraordinary and interesting publication. Church history has exercised the pens of the most distinguished writers in every sect of Christianity; but in general we may observe that their attention was directed to the great political events in which churchmen were the actors, rather than to the silent progress of the Christian faith in various parts of the world, or to the effects of corruption and superstition on the number of true believers. The outline of the history of the church of Christ is to be found, we are fully persuaded, in the book of Revelations. The harlot clothed in scarlet represents the pollutions of the Romish church, whose notorious crimes fill the pages of our historians. The woman fleeing from the wrath of the dragon is the true church; but, from the nature of her flight, it will be difficult to trace her footsteps. It is the object of the author of the present work to write the history of the latter; and, however we may differ from him in many of his opinions, we highly applaud his design, and, in several respects, its execution; but we must point out the general tenor of the work, that our readers may exercise their judgement on the propriety of some prominent features in this publication.

The author is a distinguished minister of the church of England, is in possession of a considerable living, was countenanced by lady Huntingdon, was favored with the friendship of John Wesley and George Whitfield, and was principal agent in the plan for sending missionaries into the South Seas. It is needless to observe to our readers, that, from these facts, and from the particular use of the word evangelical, the author is to be considered as a leading member of that body of the clergy of the church of England which has assumed to itself the title of Evangelical. This observation must be kept in view in the perusal of the whole work, which on this account is the more interesting, as we may hence gather the chief opinions of a considerable part of the clergy, who are now of sufficient strength and importance to excite the parti-

cular attention of every friend to the church and its interests. In fact, the perusal of this work has opened our eyes more than any other publication to some occurrences that have taken place in the church within the last fifty years; and to understand them thoroughly we must go back to an earlier period.

The articles of the church of England were settled in the reign of queen Elizabeth. A latitude in the interpretation of them was first admitted in the reign of Charles the First; and the advocates for the innovation were styled latitudinarians. This latitude took deep root on the publication of bishop Burnet's interpretation of the articles, which was followed by a neglect, or almost contempt, of the controversies agitated in the early days of the church. Moral preaching naturally succeeded; subscription to the articles was modified in a variety of shapes, and at last almost explained away. In this state it was natural that two parties should be formed; the one strenuous for the articles in the most rigid sense, the other inclined to adapt them to the new opinions of the times. The former party ran into methodism, the latter into Arianism. Many clergymen of the former class imitated the customs and preaching of the itinerant methodist ministers; a considerable number of the latter class formed themselves into a society for relief in the affair of subscription; and a petition was presented by them to parliament for that purpose. The ill success of that petition, and the consequent secession of some of the clergy from the church, subjected the petitioners to some obloquy; and the church, alarmed with the cry of Socinianism and Arianism, began to look with a favourable eye on the more rigid subscribers, whose tenets and practices had been branded with the names of enthusiasm, fanaticism, and methodism.

In both cases there was danger of schism. On the one hand, the latitudinarian opinions were introducing schism on the subject of doctrine; on the other, the evangelical opinions, as they are now called, were making a schism on the subject of discipline. The latitudinarian clergy had no objection to the form of the establishment, if the doctrines of the church were modified to their standard; the evangelical clergy had less regard to the form or discipline of the church, provided the spirit of the doctrinal articles, or, as they would term it, vital Christianity, should be retained. Hence the latitudinarians remained in general, after the rejection of their petition, quiet members of the establishment; the evangelical clergy, from the natural desire of awakening the people, were more active in their measures; and their zeal has produced the erection of meeting-houses in various parts of the kingdom, whose increase

within the laſt three years, as ſpecified in this work, far exceeds our calculations.

In this ſtate of the church, the publication of a hiſtory whoſe evident tendency is to lower our opinions of epiſcopacy and to leſſen the attachment to the peculiar diſcipline of the church of England, muſt be viewed with a jealous eye; and, as the acquieſcence of an Arian in the diſcipline of the church ſeems by no means to juſtify his ſubſcription to the articles, the moſt rigid belief of the doctrines of the church is no palliation for the inſinuations againſt its diſcipline thrown out by one who has ſubſcribed the articles and is in actual poſſeſſion of a benefice. We therefore think it neceſſary to point out in marked terms our diſapprobation of the liberty in which this writer has indulged himſelf, that, in beſtowing due praiſe on the piety, liberality, hiſtorical knowledge, attachment to Chriſtianity, labour, ſkill, arrangement, which diſtinguiſh this work, we may not give encouragement to the propagation of ſchiſm.

The hiſtory is divided into centuries, and in each century is aſſigned one chapter to the true ſpiritual church. The firſt volume contains the hiſtory of the firſt four centuries; in the ſecond are comprehended the following twelve centuries; and the laſt volume brings the hiſtory down to the preſent times. The firſt and laſt volumes are concluded with appendices on uniformity in religion, on ſchiſm, on infidelity, on the preſent ſtate of evangelical religion, on the means of extending the ſpiritual church of Chriſt, and on the call of captain Wilſon to conduct the miſſionaries to the South Seas; and in theſe eſſays the peculiar tenets of the writer may be clearly diſcerned. In the introduction theſe tenets are given by himſelf; and they deſerve the attention of our readers.

'Having, through divine mercy, obtained grace to be faithful—in providence received my education—and been called to miniſter in the church of England, I have embraced and ſubſcribed her articles, *ex animo*, and have continued to prefer an epiſcopal mode of government; and I am content herein to abide with God, till I can find one more purely apoſtolic. But diſclaiming all excluſive pretenſions, and joined to the Lord in one ſpirit, with all the faithful of every denomination, I candidly avow my conviction; that the true church is catholic, or univerſal; not monopolized by any one body of profeſſing Chriſtians, but eſſentially a ſpiritual church; and conſiſting only and equally of thoſe who, in every denomination, love our Lord Jeſus Chriſt in ſincerity. Reſpecting the adminiſtration of this church, I am not convinced that the Lord of Life and Glory left any preciſe regulations. His kingdom could alike ſubſiſt under any ſpecies of government; and having nothing to do with this world, was in externals to be regulated by exiſting

circumſtances. Whether epiſcopacy, a preſbytery, or the congregational order, be eſtabliſhed as the dominant profeſſion, it affects not the body of Chriſt. The living members, under each of theſe modes of adminiſtration, are alike bound to love one another out of a pure heart fervently; to indulge their brethren in the ſame liberty of private judgment, which they exerciſe themſelves; and ought never to ſuffer theſe regulations of outward order to deſtroy the unity of the ſpirit, or to break the bonds of peace.

'When I ſpeak of epiſcopacy, as moſt correſpondent, in my poor ideas, to the apoſtolic practice, and the general uſage of the church in the firſt, and generally eſteemed purer ages, let no man imagine I plead for that epiſcopacy, which riſing very early on the ſtilts of prelatical pride and worldly-mindedneſs, has ſince overſpread the earth with its baneful ſhadow; or ſuppoſe thoſe to be the true ſucceſſors of the apoſtles, who, graſping at power and preeminence over churches, which their labours never planted or watered, claim dominion over diſtricts, provinces, kingdoms, beyond all power of individual ſuperintendence. Theſe all, every where, and in every age, have manifeſted the ſame ſpirit of antichriſt; and that juſt in proportion as their uſurpation of authority over the churches and the conſciences of men, hath been moſt extenſive, moſt excluſive, and moſt intolerant.' Vol. i. P. ix.

Dr. Haweis then ſketches his primitive church, founded by apoſtles and *itinerant evangeliſts*. The biſhop and preſbyter were in his opinion the ſame; and they were

'not decked with earthly ſplendor, or gorgeous apparel; not ruling extenſive dioceſes, with vaſt revenues, but plain men, wearing often the garb of poverty and humility, in no eminence of birth, or of philoſophical or ſcientific attainments; devoting their own little ſubſtance, as well as what the piety of the faithful entruſted to their care, to the nobleſt acts of charity; eminently ſelf denied in their own conduct, and exhibiting to their flocks the brighteſt examples of deadneſs to the world, and heavenly mindedneſs: employing their lives in unwearied labours for the ſouls of men; and affecting no pre-eminence above their fellows, but that which age, excellence, and ſuperior ſervice, naturally ſecured to them. Where the danger was ſo great, and the advantage ſo ſmall, a man of God could only be conſtrained by conſcience, and the ſuffrage of his brethren, or by ardent zeal for the glory of his Lord to undertake the awful charge. Such were the primitive biſhops appointed by the great ſhepherd and biſhop of ſouls. The impoſition of hands confirmed the people's choice, and acknowledged the divine call, placing theſe in the foremoſt rank of death and dignity.' Vol. i. P. xiv.

The hiſtory is introduced by a ſlight ſketch of our Saviour's life, and properly dates its origin from the day of Pentecoſt,

in which the true church may be said to have been embodied. The labours of St. Paul are described in a spirited manner; but, if the writer's remark, that 'every individual joined to the Lord in one spirit is called to be a saint,' may justify him in refusing that title to the apostle, it was scarcely necessary to observe so minutely, that 'the ridiculous distinction of a red letter in the calendar he would have treated as contemptibly as any man can possibly do it for him.' In speaking of him and of Peter, there is too anxious a desire to represent them as itinerants, and to introduce without reason the term *itinerancy*; but the sanction of their high authority is no precedent for the abuse of the term and the practice in later times. We observe with pleasure, however, that 'the trumped-up tradition' of Peter's visit to Rome is reprobated, and placed 'among the frauds against which whoever reads ecclesiastical history must be continually on his guard;' that the tales of John and Cerinthus, and Tertullian's caldron of burning oil, are placed in the Apocrypha; and that the traditions of Eusebius are deprived of their authority. It is justly remarked also, that the fruits of the spirit must be visible in the true church; but the notion, 'that the truly converted in general can remember the time when, the place where, and the persons by whom, they were first called into marvellous light, and received the saving knowledge of their crucified Lord,' may lead to some dangerous conceits. The idea that 'bishops, priests, and deacons, were to succeed to the high-priest, priests, and Levites,' is properly represented as unfounded; and the mode of church government which prevailed in this period is summed up in the following manner.

'As soon as a little society was formed of Christian men, a room was opened for their assembling, and the most apt to teach appointed to minister to them in holy things.

'He was a man of gravity, generally of the more aged, married, and having a family, approved by his fellows, and willing to devote himself to their service.

'His appointment was signified by prayer and imposition of hands of the apostle Paul, or some of the itinerant evangelists and the presbytery; and without this I meet no ordination.

'Every church exercised discipline over its own members, to admit, admonish, or expel.

'Before these itinerant evangelists all accusations against offending presbyters were brought—They, in conjunction with the congregation, regulated matters of order, and corrected abuses.

'These seem not to have had any appropriate district, but went about every where, chiefly under the direction of the apostle Paul.

'These great evangelists were usually supported by the churches; but often, like Paul, maintained themselves by their own labours.

During the firſt ages, the miniſtry was not appropriated to gentlemen or ſcholars. No man was bred to it as a profeſſion, or went into it for a maintenance. They were paſtors of a different ſtamp.

'The ſtationary preſbyters or biſhops during the lives of the apoſtle and his aſſociate evangeliſts were under their ſuperintendence. But it will appear very early in the ſecond century, when this firſt race of great itinerants departed, that one among the miniſters in every place began to have the name of biſhop κατ' ἐξοχὴν, with preſbyters his coadjutors, acting with him as one body.

'All eccleſiaſtical officers from the beginning, and for the firſt three hundred years, were elected by the people. Even Mathias was thus choſen to fill up the tribular number of the apoſtles.

'Deacons were inſtituted for the care of the poor, eſpecially the widows; and deaconeſſes afterwards appear for the ſame purpoſes, though their inſtitution is not expreſsly marked in the ſacred canon. Originally they were ordained not for one congregation, but for the myriads at Jeruſalem, whoſe widows were provided for out of a common ſtock.

'Every member of the primitive church ſeems to have made it a conſtant practice to lay aſide weekly a certain portion of his income or gains, for the poor, the perſecuted, or the Goſpel, according to his ability; and hence, though generally the Chriſtians were of the loweſt and moſt indigent claſs of the people, the riches of their liberality abounded, and their means for this aroſe from their Chriſtian character itſelf. Their induſtry was great, and they waſted nothing in extravagance of any kind, being by principle ſelf-denied to all indulgences for themſelves, that they might have to give to him that needed. And if all real Chriſtians more conſcientiouſly obſerved this rule ſtill, it is amazing what a fund might be raiſed for the relief of the neceſſitous, and the furtherance of the Goſpel.' Vol. i. p. 93.

The laſt obſervation deſerves to be impreſſed on the mind of every Chriſtian; for if it were duly followed it would redound much to the honour of churches.

The gradual riſe of prelatical power from this time to the age of Conſtantine, and with it the introduction of ceremonies, the change of the external church from a ſtate of perſecution to a ſtate of exaltation, the ceſſation of miraculous powers, the introduction of monaſticiſm, are all well deſcribed by our author. He is cautious in giving aſſent to the tales of the early writers: he reprobates with juſt ſeverity the intolerance of ſeveral; he diſtinguiſhes between their virtues as Chriſtians and their failings as men; and he has the wiſdom to perceive that the abilities and energies of ſaints and biſhops were often applied to very pernicious purpoſes. The name of a heretic, a name often impoſed by the

more numerous party without reason, does not deter him from searching for the sincere belief and practice of Christianity among those who were reprobated by their brethren. Even in the dazzling splendor of the throne and the courtly flatteries of the hypocritical Eusebius, the enormities of the first pretended Christian emperor are detected; and with honest truth the writer justly exclaims—'I would rather have been the meanest Christian in a cottage than Constantine the Great.'

An author who thus has the resolution to pierce the veil cast over the early ages of the church, may naturally be expected to do justice to its enemies; and the character of Julian is treated with greater respect than it is by the generality of Christians supposed to deserve. He judges too harshly, we would hope, in the comparison between that prince and our bishop Warburton, when he says, 'I fear greatly, that, if Julian was not quite as good a Christian as the bishop, he was probably a better man; fully persuaded, that, had their situations been reversed, the bishop would have preferred persecution to tolerance.' The character given of this emperor deserves to be placed before our readers; and when they reflect that it is drawn by one who is in the highest degree earnest for the Christian faith, they will see abundant reason to applaud him for his impartiality.

'Julian, branded by historians as the apostate, hardly deserved that name: nor possessed much less of true Christianity than his uncle or cousin, whom, in the exemplariness of his moral conduct, he seems to have greatly exceeded.

'The Christianity he had been taught scarcely merited the title. He beheld with horror his cousin's hands defiled with the blood of his nearest relations; he saw all the religion of the court, consisting in the ambition and intrigues of sycophant bishops: and he was too far removed from the poor, and lowly Christians, to have ever discovered the evidence of its divine power; whilst he was tired out, and disgusted with the bitter quarrels and contentions about abstruse opinions; which those who were most violent, probably least understood. His philosophic friends, whom he caressed, used all their arts to deceive and influence him; strengthened his objections; and turned his hatred for the ill-usage of his family by professing Christians, against Christianity itself; the truths of which he had never truly known or embraced, and therefore the profession of it he easily renounced. From his earliest youth initiated in classic literature, his proficiency was considerable, as his labours were indefatigable. He produced several literary works, in which he displayed much vanity of science, but few traits of a deep and matured understanding. Seduced by the flatteries of the pagan sophists, he became the dupe of the most abject superstitions; and he betrayed as gross an ignorance of true philosophy, as of religion,

by his implicit belief, as well as by his diligent ſtudy, of all the abſurdities of magic. His writings afford a ſtrange mixture of genius and folly, of wit and weakneſs, of candour and duplicity. Yet his virtues deſerve an honourable mention. He was as brave in the field, as diligent in the ſtudy; moſt exemplarily temperate, and ſober; diſdaining the indulgences of the animal man, and eager to acquire the title of philoſopher; and what above all deſerves a tribute of praiſe, in all his enmity and oppoſition to Chriſtianity, he indulged nothing of that cruelty, which had ſo often marked his pagan predeceſſors. With ſovereign power he maintained univerſal toleration. He favoured, indeed, the ſuperſtitions which he himſelf practiſed; but he compelled no man, by any pains and penalties, to conform to them. He condeſcended, as an author, fairly to enter the liſts with argument and ridicule, as more potent adverſaries had done before; and if accuſed of attempting to undermine the church, encouraging ſectaries and ſchiſmatics; and ſhutting up the ſchools of philoſophy from the Chriſtians: I ſee nothing in all this inconſiſtent with the character of a perfectly honeſt but miſtaken man; and only admire, that with the force of the empire at his beck, he ſhould refrain from uſing weapons too congenial with the fallen ſpirit. His tolerant indulgence of all ſectaries is but the duty of every governor, whatever his religion be; and the policy of it, as well as juſtice, deſerves to be imitated. He did not much harm to true Chriſtianity, by ſhutting up the philoſophic ſchools; whilſt he left to every man the free peruſal of the word of God: and how he undermined Chriſtianity, more than every rational philoſophic Chriſtian has done ſince, I ſee not. I admire his candour, his lenity, his tolerance: I pity his misfortune in being expoſed to ſuch adviſers, and being deſtitute of underſtanding, as of grace, in adopting ſuch ſenſeleſs ſuperſtitions. Chriſtians have abuſed him with an aſperity, and infidels vaunted his excellencies with an exaggeration, of which he was equally undeſerving.' Vol. i. p. 313.

The characters of the chief perſonages who diſtinguiſhed this period of the hiſtory are drawn with equal fidelity. Origen is claſſed among the doubtful Chriſtians; the pride of Cyprian is juſtly reprobated; and Novatian is vindicated. On the diſpute between the two laſt chiefs is this juſt obſervation.

'The inſolence, the abuſe, and the condemnation, heaped on the devoted heads of all that preſumed to differ from a biſhop of Carthage, I utterly condemn, fully perſuaded that the peace, the unity, and purity of the true church, will be a thouſand times better preſerved by leaving our brethren who may differ from us to themſelves, bearing and forbearing, than by all the anathemas hurled againſt them by a Cyprian, a Gregory, or a Laud.'

The Arian hereſy is properly attributed to the falſe maxims and proud ſcience of the ſchool of Origen; but, in deſcribing

the character and doctrines of this celebrated heretic, our author, as in too many other places, introduces names of a much later date; and we must reprobate such assertions as these—'Dr. Clarke is as much a blasphemer as Socinus.' The stand made by Athanasius is well described; and on the controversy at large Dr. Haweis exclaims with his usual impartiality, 'Deeds were done on both sides so contrary to every principle of love and the spirit of meekness and truth, that I stand like a man in court between two witnesses swearing to contradictions.' In the present days his opinion of the Athanasian creed will not be received with so much satisfaction; nor will the charity of the supposed author be admitted by numbers who believe in the greater part of his creed.

'Athanasius was firm in the truth, and could not yield a tittle in point of doctrine, but he was no such bigot as he is represented, or uncharitable. The truths of God will not bear accommodation to a fancied candor or charitableness of judgment. I may possess the kindest spirit, and practice the fullest exercise of toleration and forbearance, and yet decisively declare that except a man believe the catholic faith he cannot be saved. In my view, the damnatory clauses of the creed, which bears his name, breathe the noblest exercise of true Christian charity.' Vol. i. p. 307.

On the character of Augustin we perceive stronger marks of sound judgement; and there is a just comparison between his works and those of Edwards.

'Augustin figures among the most eminent of the fathers, as an author; but a considerable portion of his writings will be found jejune, declamatory, and sometimes highly objectionable: and in the very point of the doctrines of grace, wherein he excels, there is more deep reasoning, solid argument, precision of language, and scriptural evidence, in one page of Edwards on Free Will, than in all the voluminous works of Augustin put together. His conduct respecting the Donatists will never find a parallel in the scriptures. His arguments against them shall be allowed all their real weight; but they are greatly weakened by calling in the sword of the civil magistrate, and the harsh syllogisms of fines and imprisonment. Surely such are not the weapons of our warfare. Yet is Augustin an eminent character; his principles evangelical, and the general tenor of his life highly exemplary. His little diocese of Hippo eminently profited by his labours, and, in a day of great decay, exhibited specimens of primitive Christianity.' Vol. i. p. 337.

The fourth century closes with a church very different from that which began on the day of Pentecost. Its government is thus described.

'The government of the church was quite new modelled. Instead of the people chusing their own bishops and presbyters, they

were no more consulted. The presbyters wholly depended on bishops and patrons: the bishops were the creatures of patriarchs and metropolitans; or, if the see was important, appointed by the emperor. So church and state formed the first inauspicious alliance; and the corruption which had been plentifully sown before, now ripened by court intrigues for political bishops of imperial appointment, or at the suggestion of the prime minister.' Vol. i. p. 340.

(To be continued.)

The Geographical System of Herodotus, examined; and explained, by a Comparison with those of other ancient Authors, and with modern Geography. In the Course of the Work are introduced, Dissertations on the Itinerary Stade of the Greeks, the Expedition of Darius Hystaspes to Scythia, the Position and Remains of ancient Babylon, the Alluvions of the Nile, and Canals of Suez; the Oasis and Temple of Jupiter Ammon, the ancient Circumnavigation of Africa, and other Subjects of History and Geography. The whole explained by Eleven Maps, adapted to the different Subjects, and accompanied with a complete Index. By James Rennell, F.R.S. &c. 4to. 2l. 2s. Boards. Nicol. 1800.

THE author of the present work has distinguished himself by his industry in illustrating the geography of India. The office which he there enjoyed, and his other opportunities of collecting information, gave him extraordinary advantages for that department, and the public therefore seemed to be highly gratified by his work: but, with regard to other countries, Major Rennell can have access to few sources of information which are not open to every literary man; and one would naturally expect, from an author who endeavours to illustrate the geography of Herodotus, an intimate acquaintance with the Greek language, many delicate shades of which may convey various intelligence to a sedulous inquirer into a particular topic, while a general translation only conveys the general sense of the original.

The ingenious major, aware of this objection, has made an apology in the preface, which, though sufficient for some instances, is not completely applicable to others. What his own modesty has prevented him from urging, we may safely advance to counterbalance in some measure this disadvantage, namely, his profound mathematical study of the mechanical parts of geography, such as itinerary measures, the variations of the compass, the course of winds and currents, &c. all which knowledge he has often condensed upon the page of the father of history with powerful effect; nor is he less happy in ap-

plying modern information with ſuch effect as to throw light upon the opinions of antiquity.

With every prepoſſeſſion in favour of the author's ſkill and talents, we were a little ſurpriſed when we found more than ſeven hundred and fifty pages employed on ſuch a theme. We ſhould have expected a more lucid compreſſion of learning; but, as there is gold in the mine, the reader muſt take the trouble of digging for it; and, to evince our candour, we ſhall begin with the author's apology, which he has himſelf thrown into the concluſion.

'It is poſſible that ſome readers may have condemned the work, for its containing matter, in their opinion, foreign to the main ſubject; and others for its being, altogether, too diffuſe. With reſpect to the firſt claſs, it may be remarked that any ſyſtem, in order to be underſtood, muſt be regularly gone through; and it happens that the dryneſs of geographical detail is ſuch, that a continued ſeries of them would rather be referred to, than read: ſo that the intention of explaining a ſyſtem would of courſe have been fruſtrated. It has therefore been the ſtudy of the author, to intermix with the geographical matter, ſuch ingredients, as, whilſt they ſerved to conſolidate the whole maſs into a regular form, would alſo give it the moſt agreeable colouring: in other words, that by the addition of hiſtory, which, it is the proper office of geography to explain; by miſcellaneous remarks and obſervations; and occaſionally by remarks on the phyſical geography; he might ſupply in part that intereſt, which the generality of readers muſt ever find wanting, in books of ſcience.

'In reſpect to objections to the bulk of the work, taken abſolutely, the author can only anſwer in the words of an eminent hiſtorian, that "he, who in the deſcription of unknown things, affects too much brevity, ſeeks not ſo much that which ſhould be plainly told, as that which ſhould be paſſed over." In effect, a great many of the notices afforded by Herodotus, could not be ſo well explained, or illuſtrated, as by a reference to the works of other authors; or by the introduction of foreign matter.

'It is a remark of Polybius on this very ſubject of geography, that the ancient authors who had written concerning it, had fallen into ſo many errors, that it was neceſſary to enter into a full and deliberate examination of them; but, at the ſame time, he with great candour, allows, "that their labours deſerve on the whole, rather praiſe than cenſure; and that their errors are ever to be corrected in the gentleſt manner; ſince it is certain, that they would themſelves retract or alter many paſſages in their works, if they were now alive."

'The author will receive that reward for which he has toiled, if the public, during the peruſal of his work, have regarded it with the ſame ſentiments, as thoſe which poſſeſſed the mind of Polybius:

and which may be productive of more advantage in the preſent, than in the former caſe; ſince the author hopes that he may be enabled, in perſon, to retract or alter, what the diſcernment of his judges may condemn.' P. 745.

In our account of this work, we propoſe firſt to give the reader a general idea of its contents, and, laſtly, to offer ſome remarks on particular paſſages, concerning ſome of which we hope the major will permit us to be diſſentient. We deteſt deſpotiſm and monopoly in any branch of ſcience, and muſt confeſs, that, when we read the author's angry note concerning a criticiſm in our review, we were led to imagine that he had more flatterers than friends. But this ſenſation was momentary. The experience that it is abſolutely impoſſible to ſatiate any author with praiſe, is almoſt the ſole cauſe why the names of the authors of literary journals are not communicated to the public. The ſmalleſt objection, the ſlighteſt hint, will inflame the ſelf-importance of the generality of authors. Yet no utility could ariſe from ſuch a journal, if it were a mere feaſt of praiſe; and our literature would be degraded to the inſignificance of Italian flattery, in which a ſonneteer could not be mentioned without being ſtyled *illuſtriſſimo*. Praiſe is a moſt precious commodity, and muſt not be ſquandered; for, if it be laviſhed, where will be the reward of merit? We ſhall therefore ſtill claim abſolute freedom of diſſent, where we ſuppoſe that the major has fallen into miſtakes attendant on all the energies of man. But, as our diſſent ſhall be ſolely grounded on ſcientific motives, we truſt that he will forget his ſpleen, and accept our obſervations with perfect cordiality.

We now proceed to exhibit a general ſketch of this volume. In his preface, the author informs us, that he had ſeveral years ago undertaken the taſk of correcting the geography, ancient and modern, of that part of Aſia which lies between India and Europe; 'in effect, the great theatre of ancient hiſtory in Aſia, as well as of European commerce and communication in modern times.'

'This taſk he has ſome time ſince performed, to the beſt of his ability, and as far as his ſtock of materials admitted: but the work had grown to ſuch a ſize, that it would have been an act of imprudence in an individual, to venture on ſo great an expence as the execution of the work, in all its parts, required. In the mean time, however, he has adventured ſo far, as to prepare the firſt diviſion of it, conſiſting of the geography of Herodotus; and which, as preparing the ground for the remainder of the ancient geography, he now, with great deference, offers to the public; accompanied with maps neceſſary to its explanation.

'The remaining parts will conſiſt of the ancient geography, as it

was improved by the Grecian conqueſts and eſtabliſhments; together with ſuch portions of military hiſtory, as appear to want explanation.* Maps of ancient geography, on ſcales adapted to the purpoſe, will accompany it: whilſt the modern geography, (in which the moſt prominent features of the ancient, will alſo appear) will be contained in a large map, ſimilar in ſize and ſcale, to the four-ſheet map of India, already in the hands of the public. It map be proper to remark, that, as the preſent volume forms a complete work of itſelf, ſo will each of the ſucceeding ones; they being no otherwiſe connected with each other, than as being in the ſame ſeries. The ſame is to be underſtood of ſome large maps that are to accompany the volumes, but will be too large to be folded into them.' P. vii.

Major Rennell then proceeds to apologiſe for his ignorance of the Greek language, and to acknowledge the aſſiſtance which he has received from various reſpectable quarters.

The work itſelf is divided into twenty-ſix ſections. The firſt ſection contains preliminary obſervations; in the ſecond is a diſcuſſion of the itinerary ſtadium of the Greeks; the third diſcloſes the ſentiments of Herodotus concerning Europe; the fourth, thoſe which relate to the weſtern Scythia on the Euxine; the fifth treats of the countries bordering on Weſtern Scythia; the ſixth, of the expedition of Darius Hyſtaſpes to that country. In the ſeventh ſection the author proceeds to deſcribe the countries ſituated beyond weſtern Scythia, on the eaſt and north-eaſt; the eighth relates to the general opinions of Herodotus concerning Aſia, and the ſubject is continued in the next ſection; the tenth treats of eaſtern Scythia, or the country of the Maſſagetæ; in the eleventh and twelfth the major diſcuſſes the twenty ſatrapies of Darius Hyſtaſpes; in the thirteenth, he examines the report of Ariſtagoras concerning the royal road from Ionia to Suſia; and the next concerns the ſite and remains of ancient Babylon. In a digreſſive ſection (the fifteenth) the author conſiders the captivity and diſpoſal of the ten tribes of the Jews (he ſhould have ſaid Hebrews). In the ſixteenth he commences his account of Africa, according to the ideas of Herodotus; and the remaining ſections relate wholly to that continent, the canals of Suez, the Nile, and Memphis; the Oaſes of Egypt and Libya, the temple of Ammon, the Syrtes, the antiquity of Morocco leather, &c. The twenty-fourth and twenty-fifth ſections relate to the circumnavigation of Africa by the ſhips of Necho; and the laſt ſection preſents ſome account of the voyage of Hanno along its weſtern coaſts. A liſt of eleven maps is ſubjoined, moſt of which are curious and intereſting.

To the following obſervations reſpecting the credit of Herodotus we can ſafely aſſent.

'It is a common and just remark, that the authority of our author's work has been rising in the opinion of the world, in latter times; which may be referred to the number of discoveries that have been lately made, and which are continually making, in the countries which he describes. It was ignorance and inattention therefore, that determined the opinions of his judges; a charge in which several of the ancients are implicated as well as the moderns. The same want of attention has confounded together, the descriptions of what he saw, with what he had only heard; and which he might think himself bound to relate. Mr. Wood speaks much to the purpose respecting this matter. He says, "were I to give my opinion of him, having followed him through most of the countries which he visited, I would say, that he is a writer of veracity in his description of what he saw, but of credulity in his relations of what he had heard." We may add, that superstition made him credulous in believing many improbable stories; but love of truth prevented him from asserting falsehoods. The instances of gross superstition manifested by him are too numerous to be recounted; but superstition was also common to many other great characters.

'But his ignorance in certain points is infinitely more unpleasing than his superstition: for it may be observed, that however distinguished our author may have been as an historian, geographer, and moralist, yet that as a man of science, and a natural philosopher, he ranks very low indeed; as is too conspicuous in several parts of his work. Such is his ignorance of the existence of snow in elevated situations in warm climates; Euterpe, 22; his belief that the sun was vertical in India before mid-day; Thalia, 104; and his very unphilosophical way of accounting for the swelling of the Nile; in which he talks of the sun's being driven out of his course, &c. Euterpe, 24.

'It appears also, that he did not believe that the earth was of a globular form; which alone was sufficient to lead him into great errors. Says he, Melpom. 36. "I cannot but think it exceedingly ridiculous to hear some men talk of the circumference of the earth, pretending, without the smallest reason or probability, that the ocean encompasses the earth; that the earth is round, as if mechanically formed so; and that Asia is equal to Europe." Again, Melpom. 42, although he believed that the ships of Nechao had circumnavigated Africa, yet it appeared incredible to him, that during the voyage they should have had the sun on their right hand. All which arose from his ignorance in matters of science. But wheresoever he speaks of history, or of morals, he fails not to give information and satisfaction: these being his proper walks.' P. 5.

The major's conclusion concerning the itinerary stadium of the Greeks is conveyed in the following terms.

'It has been observed that the mean stade of 718 to a degree, is

ſomewhat above 500 Engliſh feet (that is $505\frac{1}{2}$); and 500 Grecian feet are equal to about $503\frac{1}{2}$ Engliſh). A pace was no doubt the elementary part of itinerary meaſures, amongſt the Greeks, as well as other nations; and the natural pace is nearly about 5 feet. Is it not probable that the integral meaſure, the ſtade, was made up of 100 of theſe? and that hence aroſe the ſtade of about 500 feet, in ordinary uſe? Some, we know not on what authority, have fixed the Grecian pace at more than 6 of our feet. But it would appear that they took the orgyia for a pace, although it ſeems to have been a fathom. D'Anville's Meſ. Itin. p. 43. It is not probable that any natural pace ever extended to the length of 6 feet, or perhaps to more than five. The Roman pace was five of their feet, anſwering to 4 feet 10 inches of our meaſure.' P. 33.

Under the ſecond diviſion of this eſtimate we ſhall conſider ſeveral objectionable paſſages in our author's ideas concerning the Scythians; but we cannot here omit to mention what has impreſſed us deeply in the peruſal, namely, that he has, in this department of his work, been ſeduced from the proper mode of inquiry, and has, through a hundred pages, been led into the portentous error of confounding the Scythian nations, of the firſt dawn of hiſtory, with the Tartars of recent times. On ſuch topics, very profound learning becomes indiſpenſable, and no apology can be accepted for the defect. The fact is, that, on the great concuſſion of nations which preceded the fall of the Roman empire, the ancient Scythians were expelled by the Huns, a Tartaric tribe, who were ſucceeded by the Mongols, &c. We wiſh that the major had only glanced at De Guignes, and he would have ſeen that he was plunging himſelf into inextricable difficulties, and errors abſolutely incalculable, though as palpable to the majority of literary men, as if he had confounded the Spaniards in Peru with the original inhabitants, while, perhaps, four different races of people had poſſeſſed that region before the Americans went thither.

We ſincerely wiſh that the ſection concerning the Scythians had been totally omitted; but the ſections reſpecting the ſatrapies, or governments, into which the Perſian empire was divided, will afford pleaſure even to the moſt learned reader.

In the ſection which relates to Babylon, the major gives an ingenious theory concerning that celebrated city, and a curious map of the circumjacent regions. He ſhows that many remains of ancient Babylon exiſt near the modern Hillah, on the Euphrates, about ſixteen miles ſouth of Bagdad. In the ſection concerning the ten tribes, he attempts to ſhow that only certain claſſes of the Hebrews were carried away and ſettled in Media,—an opinion which will not be accepted, becauſe the ideas of the moſt learned commentators, and all the Jewiſh

traditions, are united against it. On the opposite side, even a solitary argument might perhaps be sufficient; as the name of Hebrews expired after the captivity of the ten tribes and a half, and that of Jews, from the remaining tribe of Judah, was substituted. We suspect that divines will as strongly object to this section, as men of real learning will to those which regard the Scythians.

One of the most interesting divisions of the work relates to the knowledge which Herodotus had of Africa.

'The third and last division of our subject is Africa, or Lybia. Concerning this continent, it may be said, that our author was aware that it contained a greater extent of space than either of the others; although his knowledge of it, in detail, was more confined. Here it may be remarked, that, if his native city, Halicarnassus, be taken for a centre, it will be found, that a radius of 1000 British miles will circumscribe the whole extent of his geographical knowledge in detail. It may also be remarked, that the circle so described, passes through, or near to, the several points of Babylon, Syene, Carthage, Corsica, the upper part of the Danube, the forks of the Borysthenes, and the mouth of the Tanais. So that it included Greece, Italy, Thrace, Scythia, Colchis, Asia Minor, Assyria, Palestine, Egypt, Lybia, and the country of the Garamantes. It will be found, almost invariably, that beyond this range, our author grows more and more obscure and uncertain, as we advance in any line of direction whatsoever: or, if any thing, he grows more obscure on the European, than on the Asiatic side. But of the absolute measure of extent known to him, by report, Africa contained a greater proportion, than either of the other two continents: or it may possibly be, that the space known, in that mode, in Africa, may have equalled that, known in Asia, and Europe collectively.

'These being the circumstances of the case, it will appear that the parts of Africa best known to our author were those along the middle and eastern basons of the Mediterranean sea; including Egypt and Lybia, with Fezzan, and other Oases, in the Lybian desert. Beyond these regions, his descriptions grow less circumstantial; as is the case of those of the upper part of the course of the Nile; the course of the Niger; the country about mount Atlas; and the position of the promontory of Soloeis. And, finally, he carries us into the regions of darkness, of fable, and even of absurdity, in his descriptions of the Macrobian Ethiopians, and the people of Nigritia; of the fountains of the Nile, and the operation of the sun, on its waters, &c. In fact, the same cause that allotted a place, in his history, to the description of the ants that were said to dig up gold, in India; and to that of the mode of collecting cinnamon in Arabia; namely, the difficulty of getting

at the truth; gave occaſion alſo to the deſcription of the table of the ſun, in Ethiopia.' P. 409.

We cannot with-hold from our readers major Rennell's ſentiments relative to the ſource of the Nile.

' That ſource in Abyſſinia, called by Mr. Bruce and by ſome others before him, the head of the Nile, appears to be, in reality, nothing more than the eaſtern, and leaſt remote; as well as the leaſt in point of bulk; of the two principal branches of the Nile, which unite below Sennar. Concerning this fact, we ſhall adduce ſome evidence, which although preſumptive only, cannot be diſproved by any poſitive evidence; ſince no ſuch exiſts: and it is no inconſiderable point in it, that Mr. Bruce himſelf, although undeſignedly, has furniſhed a principal part. We begin with M. Maillet.

' This gentleman collected his information from travellers; and there is no reaſon to ſuſpect a deſign to miſlead, having himſelf no ſyſtem to ſupport. Nor does he pretend to have any correct ideas reſpecting the geography of the upper part of the Nile, but relates merely what he had heard, without comparing the evidence. Nay, he even ſuppoſed the Nile to riſe in Abyſſinia; for by the lake Gambea, he doubtleſs intended Dambea, the Tzana of Bruce and others; but then he appears to confound it with the lake of the weſtern branch. The chief point in his deſcription, is, that at two or three journies below Sennar (it ſhould rather be ſeven or eight) the Nile, or Abyſſinian branch, receives a great river, named Bahr Abiad, (or the White river), which he ſays is at leaſt as conſiderable as the Nile. He ſays moreover, that it runs nearly parallel to the Nile, at the diſtance of 12, 15, and twenty journies from it. He does not, however, pretend to fix the ſource of the White river: he only remarks that it is eaſy to perceive that "the ſource of the Nile is not unique; and that its origin is not beyond the equator." (Deſc. Egypt, pages 40 and 41.)

' Mr. Bruce's words are the following. "The river Abiad, which is larger than the Nile, joins it here, &c.—Still the Nile preſerves the name of the Blue river—The Abiad is a deep river: it runs dead, and with little inclination, and preſerves its ſtream always undiminiſhed, becauſe riſing in latitudes where there are continual rains, it therefore ſuffers not the decreaſe the Nile does, by the ſix months dry weather;" (vol. iv. 516.) Thus Mr. Bruce goes beyond M. Maillet, by allowing the White river to be of greater bulk than the Nile: but what is more, he admits that it always continues in the ſame ſtate: whilſt the Nile ſuffers a diminution half the year. He ſays moreover, that its bed has little deſcent, whence it may be concluded that it runs through its own alluvions in that part; which particular implies a conſiderable length of courſe. But Mr. Bruce accounts for its bulk, and equal ſtate, from the continual rains that fall in the countries contiguous to its

ſource; which is ſaying in other words, that it ſprings from a different region from that which gives riſe to the Abyſſinian branch; whence by his account, the ſource of the White river ſhould be very remote from that of the Blue river, in Abyſſinia. But what ſays his map? There, the limits of the periodical rainy ſeaſons lie between ſixteen degrees of latitude; and thoſe of the perpetual rains, between 4 degrees; on each ſide of the equator. There alſo, the ſource of the White river is placed in 8° north, and that of the Blue river in 11° only, with a difference of meridians of no more than $2\frac{1}{4}$° : and one of the ſprings of the latter is even near the 8th degree. Do theſe differences then conſtitute different regions? We may add, that the White river is drawn on his map, much ſmaller than the eaſtern branch; which differs, as we have ſeen, totally from the deſcription!

'The fact we ſhould conceive clearly to be, that the White river has a much more diſtant ſource than the other. Some light is thrown on this particular, by Maillet's ſaying that the White river runs nearly parallel to, and at the diſtance of 12, 15, and 20 journies from the Nile; which can only be true of two rivers that ſpring at a great diſtance from each other. We are of opinion, therefore, that Mr. Bruce, who ſaw the White river, has admitted its ſuperior bulk, and ſtate of fulneſs, at all ſeaſons; properties which the other branch does not poſſeſs: (as to its being in the ſame ſtate, all the year, that we cannot ſuppoſe of any tropical river;) and hence, as he appears not to have made out his ſyſtem of a conſtant rainy ſeaſon, to ſupply the river in queſtion, the reader will probably be inclined with us, to ſuppoſe, that a ſtream, at all times confeſſedly larger than another, has, in all probability, a more remote ſource.' P. 436.

The major might have added, as we have remarked on a former occaſion, that the ancients totally diſtinguiſh the Abyſſinian river from the Nile, as they term the former the Aſtapus, a name ſeemingly connected with the Aſtraboras, another river, which flowed by Meroë. He concludes (p. 441), "that the diſtant ſource of this celebrated river is certainly not in Abyſſinia, but in ſome country to the weſtward of it." He would here certainly have added the irrefragable teſtimony of Mr. Browne; but it appears, from p. 480, that Mr. Browne's work only appeared when the ſeventeenth ſection was in the preſs.

'Since this ſection went to the preſs, the author has had the ſatisfaction to peruſe Mr. Browne's Travels in Africa; which, he conceives, will be claſſed amongſt the firſt performances of the kind. The aids it brings to geography are great, and will probably lead to further diſcoveries; as it forms a link between Abyſſinia on the eaſt, and Bornou on the weſt. Moreover, it confirms, in a great degree, two poſitions advanced in the preſent ſyſtem of African

geography: firſt, that the Niger does not join the Nile: and, ſecondly, that the moſt remote head of the Nile is not ſituated in the quarter of Abyſſinia, but far to the ſouth-weſt of it.' P. 480.

The following obſervations concerning the alluvions of rivers preſent one among many inſtances of the major's happy application of recent knowledge to ancient circumſtances.

'No doubt, when we carry back our ideas to the time when the ſea waſhed the baſe of the rock, on which the pyramids of Memphis ſtand, the preſent baſe of which is waſhed by the inundation of the Nile, at an elevation, moſt probably, of 70 or 80 feet, above the ſurface of the ſame ſea; we are loſt in the contemplation of the vaſt interval of time, that muſt neceſſarily have elapſed ſince the foundation of the Delta was firſt laid. But, appearances ſpeak too clear a language to be miſunderſtood: and we are borne out in the ſuppoſition that the Delta has been formed piece-meal, by a proceſs which we ſhall now endeavour to deſcribe. The following may accordingly be taken, as a ſpecimen of the progreſs of alluvion; and which may be ſeen, in all the different ſtages of the proceſs, at the mouth of any large river, that depoſits rapidly, and plentifully.

'All rivers preſerve, to a certain extent of ſpace, which is proportioned to the velocity of their ſtreams, a current of water, into the ſea, beyond the points of land, that form their embouchures; when, by the continued reſiſtance of the ſea, they at laſt loſe their motion. The mud and ſand ſuſpended in theſe waters, during their motion, are depoſited, when that motion ceaſes; or rather, they are gradually depoſited, as the current ſlackens: according to the gravity of the ſubſtances that are ſuſpended. This depoſition, then, will form a bank or ſhallow, in the ſea; and which will be of a fan-like ſhape, conſiſtently with the form, in which the water of the river diſperſes itſelf. This bank is of very conſiderable breadth; and is, of courſe, conſtantly on the increaſe, in height, as well as extenſion: and the additions conſtantly made to its breadth, will be on the ſide towards the ſea. Until the bank riſes up nearly to the ſurface, the river water which is continually poured into the ſea, eſcapes freely over it: but when the bank has riſen ſo high, as to incloſe the water in a kind of lake, it is then compelled to force its way through the bank: although the paſſage will be both narrow and ſhallow, whilſt the bank remains under water. This paſſage is technically named a bar: for ſuch it is, in reſpect of the channel of the river, although it be the deepeſt part of the entrance to it.

'The poſition of this opening through the bank, will be regulated by the direction of the ſtream of the river, at its termination in the ſea; and this direction, again, by the prevalent motion of the ſea, along the coaſt; the mouth of the river always falling obliquely into the line of the ſea current. Accordingly, when the river enters the ſea obliquely, the bar will be at one ſide of the bank;

and on that side which is the farthest down, in respect of the sea current. But if the river enter the sea, in a line perpendicular to its shore, the opening, or bar, will be through the middle of the bank.

'As the bank rises to the surface, the opening increases in depth and width, until it becomes absolutely a continuation of the course of the river; since its waters require the same breadth and depth to escape here, as in the upper parts of its course. And thus the upper part of the bank becomes gradually a portion of the firm land; whilst the outer part goes on accumulating, and the bar is gradually removed farther out: in effect, there will be a repetition of the same order of things. And hence it will clearly appear, that the bank thus laid in the sea, by the current of the river, is, in reality, the germ of the growing alluvion.

'The bars are usually swept away every season, by the periodical flood; which, although it cannot rise to a higher level than the sea, is increased in velocity, by the increase of the body of water, above: and also by that of its descent; as the flood swells to a greater height above, and therefore forms a slope towards the sea. These floods also bring the greatest addition to the growing alluvion: and, not unfrequently, change the direction of the channel, and with it, of course, the position of the bar: their depositions being laid farther out in the sea, by reason of the greater velocity of the current.

'Having endeavoured to explain the mode in which the alluvion gains on the sea, we shall next endeavour to explain the manner in which the changes and modifications of the existing alluvions are wrought.

'The alluvions thus formed in the sea, are, in their original state, flat, and are also on a level with the ordinary surface of the sea: but as the surge repels that part of the deposited matter, which rises to the surface, it will be raised somewhat above the level: and as this agency has regularly operated on all the new-made alluvion, it must have formed one continued level, but for the interposition of the periodical floods, which have formed it into a regular slope, corresponding with its own.

'As the alluvion, then, is extended into the sea, so is its level gradually raised into a slope: an operation that is constantly going forward, but which cannot keep pace with the extension, because every addition to it occasions a deficiency in the slope.

'Until the new formed alluvion was considerably raised, it must have partaken very much of the character given it by Herodotus; who says, that in ancient times, "the whole of Egypt, except the province of Thebes, was one extended marsh:" Euterpe, 4: and that when "the Nile rose to the height of 8 cubits, all the lands above Memphis were overflowed." (Eut. 13.) Both of these traditions clearly point to a state of things that had existed; although, probably, at a period too remote to be fixed: for there must have been a time when the Delta was not only a marsh, but was even co-

vered with water; and when the ſea muſt have advanced ſo near to the ſite of Memphis, as to allow the annual flood to riſe no higher than 8 cubits, or 12 to 14 feet, at that place. He afterwards remarks that it roſe 15 or 16 cubits in his time; which was the natural progreſs of things: as the point of contact of the land waters, with thoſe of the ſea, was removed farther out.

'So long as the alluvion of the Delta remained in the ſtate of a marſh, the waters of the Nile, through the want of declivity to carry them off, and the preſſure of the ſea water from without, when the river was low, may be ſuppoſed to have formed a tiſſue of canals, interſperſed with lakes and marſhes. But when the land began to acquire ſome degree of ſolidity in the upper parts of the Delta, canals, in the nature of drains, would be formed by the hands of men, and dykes raiſed along the banks of rivers, in order to exclude the redundant waters from the appropriated lands. And this is probably the period referred to by Herodotus, when he deſcribes "the vaſt and numerous canals by which Egypt is interſected;" and which he attributes to Seſoſtris. Euterpe, 108. He was alſo told, that the ſame prince made a regular diſtribution of the lands of Egypt, aſſigning to each Egyptian a ſquare piece of ground; and that his revenues were drawn from the rent, which every individual annually paid him.

'As the land roſe by depoſitions, the waters would naturally confine themſelves to fewer channels; ſince the land, when in a firmer ſtate, would require a greater force to divide it. At a time when the upper part of the Delta had acquired a degree of firmneſs and elevation, we learn from our author, that three natural channels, alone, conveyed the waters of the Nile to the neighbourhood of the ſea; a quarter in which the alluvial land muſt ever be regarded as in an imperfect ſtate of formation. At preſent, two alone convey it to the ſame quarter, during the ſeaſon when the river is not ſwoln; and one of theſe is growing ſhallow. Can it be doubted, then, that a delta is (comparatively ſpeaking) land in an imperfect ſtate of formation; that the natural progreſs toward completion is that of the river's confining itſelf to fewer channels; and that the inundation, from being a complete maſs of water, ſpread uniformly over the country, becomes merely an overflowing of the river, extending to a certain diſtance, and forming the country adjacent to each bank, into a ſlope of ſeveral miles in breadth, of which the higheſt part is the creſt of the bank itſelf; from the circumſtance of its depoſiting more ſediment near the bank, than at a diſtance from it? But as long as the alluvion continued too flat to communicate a ſufficient velocity to the river, when in its low ſtate, it would continue to ſeparate itſelf into many different ſtreams, although one of them would probably ſurpaſs all the reſt in bulk. On the above principle, then, as the greater ſlope, deſcribed in page 485, extends itſelf downwards, the Delta ought to retire from it: or, in other words, the river, in its courſe through the high level, ſhould flow unique;

and the baſe of the Delta ſhould gradually contract: and this, we truſt, will be ſatisfactorily proved in the ſequel.' p. 488.

Obſervations of ſimilar curioſity and importance alſo occur with regard to the currents in the ſea on the African coaſts, which the major has the high merit of firſt applying to the illuſtration of general geography. The ſection relative to the Oaſes is replete with information; but we were ſurpriſed to find the major (p. 563), in oppoſition to his own map of Africa, aſſuming the poſition, which we had before aſſerted, that Santaria is the ſame with Siwa. We wiſh that he would imitate our candour, and, when he points out our miſtakes, at the ſame time give us credit for our diſcoveries.

We were yet more ſurpriſed (in the twenty-firſt ſection) to find that the major was employing a whole army of engineers, and a battery of mathematical calculations, to eſtabliſh this very point, which had long ago impreſſed us, from comparing modern travels with the Arabic geographers. He has however the merit of demonſtrating that the temple of Jupiter Ammon was really diſcovered by Mr. Browne; a circumſtance ſince confirmed by Mr. Horneman, who, we ſincerely hope, will be preſerved from numerous dangers, and return with ample information concerning the interior of Africa. At the ſame time, we muſt expreſs our wiſh that the major would in future abandon a tone of deciſion when treating of ſo doubtful a ſcience as the geography of diſtant regions; for he will frequently find that the erection of mathematical principles upon ſandy foundations is a moſt dangerous abuſe. We particularly allude to his calculations upon diurnal journeys, in themſelves uncertain, as has been lamentably proved in the recent diſcovery of the latitude of Mourzouk, which differs no leſs than two degrees, or near one hundred and forty miles, from the major's mathematical demonſtrations. Such miſapplications of mathematical procedure are the more perilous, as they may diſguiſe the groſſeſt error under the maſk of the moſt authentic truth. Suſpenſe is always unpleaſant to the human mind, and a young writer may be pardoned for being a ſtranger to the learned ignorance recommended by Mr. Gibbon; but even the formal engraving of a map gives it an aſpect of reality; and it is far more ſafe totally to omit what is uncertain, than, by giving ideal rivers and poſitions, to miſlead the traveller, and perhaps induce him to propagate unintentional error. If we ſuppoſe, for inſtance, that a river is laid down in any imaginary direction, a traveller may be induced to loſe his time, and perhaps his life, in ſearch of a non-exiſtence; while, perhaps, if he had only truſted to his own ſpirit of inquiry, he might have made a real and important diſcovery.

The major (in page 679) computes that a day's sail among the ancients did not exceed thirty-five miles. On this and other occasions, he mentions the voyage of Nearchus without even a hint that the learned and respectable Dr. Vincent has written one word on the subject; and the translator of Hanno's voyage is only once mentioned. These circumstances seem to savour of a monopolising spirit, and to imply that the major's greatness is not only super-eminent, but solitary; and that, as Pope said of Addison, he wishes to stifle his brethren and reign alone.

On the subject of the voyage of Hanno, we expected that the major would have used the work of Gosselin, which he might have procured a twelvemonth before his own work made its appearance. On this and other occasions we have still deeply to regret the major's want of bibliographical knowledge. In treating of Babylon, he borrows his account of Beauchamp's discoveries from an English magazine, apologising for his ignorance where the originals can be found, while they first appeared, if we mistake not, in the Journal des Savans, and were thence transcribed into that common journal, the Esprit des Journaux.

As we have the advantage of possessing Gosselin's work, we shall take the opportunity of giving a cursory collation of his sentiments on the subject. Gosselin supposes that the voyage of Hanno did not extend beyond Cape Non; and he infers that the island of Cerné is now Fedal. Major Rennell, on the contrary, supposes that the southern Horn, or termination of the voyage of Hanno, was Sherborough Sound! *Non nostrum est tantas componere lites.* We have little doubt that Gosselin has too much restricted the voyage of Hanno; and perhaps major Rennell has extended the course too far; but, of the two opinions, we prefer the latter. In discussing the inland geography of the ancients, for instance that of Scythia, it is safe and proper to restrict the boundaries; but this observation cannot be equally applied to maritime discoveries, in which a ship may pass from one headland to another without any knowledge of intermediate regions. The major infers that the island of Cerné is that now termed Arguin near Cape Blanco; yet Ptolemy places it midway between the Strait of Gibraltar and the Canary Islands. The major supposes that Madeira is the Pœa of Ptolemy; and, if so, Cerné must have been one of the Canary Islands. It is probable that Ptolemy, as well as more modern geographers, sometimes put down the same object under different names, and sometimes in one latitude, sometimes in another, just as he happened to calculate the day's sail or the day's journey. That geographer might also confound intelligence of remote periods, and deposit on

his maps in a mathematical form the same island or the same region under different names and with different longitudes and latitudes. But this subject would require a dissertation, and we have already exceeded our proposed limits. We shall therefore conclude with a few remarks on this last section, that there may be no occasion to return to this particular subject in a future article. When the major observes (p. 729), that, if Cerné was only five stadia in circumference, it could not have admitted a city and colony, he certainly forgets Tyre. The islands in the Gulf of Bissago (p. 730) can hardly be identified with the single large island mentioned in Hanno's voyage, rendered remarkable and easily distinguished by a lake of salt water. When the major proceeds in the next page to explain this away by alluvial changes, he only shows that the difficulty is very great; and when we learn from his note (p. 734) that the general maps of Africa err several degrees of longitude in the extent of the Guinea coast, we have the less occasion to wonder at any ancient errors. His opinion, that the *Horns* of Hanno were bays or inlets and not promontories, as has been always supposed both in ancient and modern times, we shall not defend, but must rather deplore his deficiency of knowledge in the learned languages. Of Bougainville he observes that 'his judgement appears to have forsaken him entirely;' but the subject is so full of difficulties, that any rigid censure cannot justly be applied even to the grossest mistakes which may arise in its illustration.

(To be continued.)

Essays on the Picturesque, as compared with the Sublime and the Beautiful; and, on the Use of studying Pictures, for the Purpose of improving real Landscape. By Uvedale Price, Esq. Vol. II. 8vo. Ls. Boards. Robson.

WE have often noticed Mr. Price's peculiar doctrines, and examined the first volume of these essays in our XXIIId (N. A. p. 426). We thought we perceived a more conciliating manner in the letter to Mr. Repton, intended as a supplement to the essays, and hoped for a little favour for the trimmed lawn and unbroken banks; but Mr. Price starts again into his former doctrines, and retains with rigour every part of his own system.

Our readers will recollect, that this author opposes the doctrine and practice of Brown, in giving to grounds of every kind the sameness and monotony derived from an exquisite polish; contending, that the picturesque requires management

of a different kind—the ragged borders of the lake, the wreathed roots of an aged tree, the high-banked lane, the lines ſharpened by abrupt ſinuoſities. In objection to this we obſerved, that the ſcene at home is uſually expected to be adorned with greater neatneſs; that there we ſeek repoſe; that the irregularities which the pictureſque requires fatigue the eye and ruffle the pleaſing calm which we expect near our habitations. Having premiſed theſe leading points, which are applicable to the author's doctrines and our opinions in this article, we will follow the elegant and ingenious eſſays in a line as ſmoothly flowing as Mr. Brown himſelf could have deviſed, and as diſtant from the ſharp returns, the pictureſque poignancy of criticiſm, as even Mr. Price could wiſh.

The firſt eſſay is on artificial water. It is truly excellent, and may be read with advantage even by a follower of Mr. Brown. In fact, a lake muſt always be in ſome degree artificial; for it muſt be at leaſt kept to an uniform level, and the rival ſyſtems will differ only with reſpect to the outline, whether it ſhould be ſmoothly poliſhed or left in its natural ruggedneſs. The broken rock, the half-diſcovered antique root, &c. certainly depend on the nature of the ſurrounding ſcenery; and our author, when he ſpeaks of theſe in ſuch general terms, falls into as great an error as his antagoniſt, who would clump a foreſt and poliſh a mountain. Yet Mr. Price's ideas of adorning the uſual ſmooth regularity of theſe artificial lakes, under ſome reſtrictions, are very ingenious.

'It may be objected to the ſtyle I have recommended, that, from the aukward attempts at pictureſque effect, ſuch fantaſtic works would often be produced, as might force us to regret even the preſent monotony. I have no doubt, that very diverting performances in roots, ſtones, and rock-work, would be produced, and that alone I ſhould reckon as no little gain; for who would not prefer an abſurd, but laughable farce, to a flat inſipid piece of five acts? There is, however, another very eſſential difference. In a made river there is ſuch an incorrigible dulneſs, that unleſs the banks themſelves be totally altered, the moſt judicious planting will not entirely get the better of it: but let the moſt whimſical improver make banks with roots, ſtones, rocks, grottos, caverns, of every odd and fantaſtic form, even theſe, by means of trees, buſhes, trailing plants, and of vegetation in general, may in a ſhort time have their abſurdities in a great degree diſguiſed, and ſtill under that diſguiſe, be the cauſe of many varied and ſtriking effects: how much more ſo, if the ſame materials were diſpoſed by a ſkilful artiſt! There are, indeed, ſuch advantages ariſing from the moiſture and vegetation which generally attend the near banks of water, that even quarry ſtones ſimply placed againſt a bank, however crude their firſt appearance, ſoon become pictureſque; moſſes and weather-

stains (the certain consequence of moisture), soon enrich and diversify their surface, while plants of different kinds spring forth between their separations, and crawl and hang over them in various directions. If stones thus placed upright like a wall, nay if a wall itself, may by means of such accompaniments have an effect, what an infinite number of pleasing and striking combinations might be made, were an improver, with the eye of a painter, to search for stones of such forms and tints as he could employ to most advantage! were he at the same time, likewise to avail himself of some of those beautiful, but less common flowering and climbing plants, which in general are only planted in borders, or against walls! we see what rich mixtures are formed on rocky banks, by common heaths and furze alone, or with the addition of wild roses and wood-bines; what new combinations might then be made in many places with the Virginia creeper, periploca, trailing arbutus, &c. which though, perhaps, not more beautiful, would have a new and more dressed appearance! Many of the choice American plants of low growth, and which love shade, such as kalmeas, and rhododendrons, by having the mould they most delight in placed to the north, on that sort of shelf which is often seen between a lower and an upper ledge of rocks, would be as likely to flourish as in a garden: and it may here be remarked, that when plants are placed in new situations, with new accompaniments, half hanging over one mass of stone, and backed by another, or by a mixture of rock, soil, and wild vegetation, they assume so new a character, such a novelty and brilliancy in their appearance, as can hardly be conceived by those who only see them in a shrubbery, or a botanical garden. In warmer aspects, especially in the more southern parts of England, bignonias, passion-flowers, &c. might often grow luxuriantly amidst similar accompaniments; these we have always seen nailed against walls, and have but little idea of their effect, or even of that of vines and jessamines, when loosely hanging over rocks, and stones, or over the dark coves which might be made among them.' P. 46.

In the management of water, as leading the eye to beautiful objects, and concealing those less pleasing to which the attention would be otherwise led, as well as in the management of a natural river, Mr. Price displays an accurate and refined taste. But, in the banks of his artificial water, he still wishes to leave the little angles, the miniature bays and promontories, the fringe of rushes or of plants, which, we think, give the appearance of carelessness and neglect. We must still recur to our original principle, that, at home, all should be ornamented and polished, but, at a distance, more wild and picturesque: in every country the garden scenery is opposed to that around; and, when inclosures were comparatively few, our garden plots were divided by straight lines. These now

surround us, and of course we arrange our gardens differently.

On the whole, with the exception of our author's principle, his hobby-horse, which he often rides with little mercy, we have been highly pleased with this essay. We before noticed some of his digressions scattered in the notes. They are more numerous than in the former volume, and they are often highly interesting. We shall select one which has much pleased us. An unexpected excursus of this kind varies the scenery, and renders our author's picturesque ideas still more entertaining.

'All that part of the fable which relates to the form and position of the Cyclops' eye, is by many supposed to have been invented since the time of Homer: it is certain that he is perfectly silent with respect to them both. Some of his most diligent interpreters have also thought that he never intended to represent Polyphemus as having been originally of a different formation from other men, but merely as having lost an eye by some accident; and at Catanea, in Sicily, there is a sculpture in relief, which does represent him according to this idea. I must own, that notwithstanding these authorities, I am still inclined to think, that Homer did mean to represent the Cyclops in general, as a one-eyed race by nature, whatever may have been his notion of the form and position of that one eye. There is a passage in Strabo which clearly proves that he was of that opinion: speaking of Homer's mixing truth with falsehood, he says, that he probably borrowed *τὰς μονομάτους κύκλωπας*, from the history of the Arimaspians. I lately, also, heard an observation which strongly influenced my opinion. At the time I was writing this note, I mentioned the subject of it in company with some friends of mine, very much versed in all classical learning. One of them, whose words in public and private have such weight, that the slightest of them are recollected, said, he was persuaded that Polyphemus never had more than one eye; for if he had ever had two, Homer would not have omitted telling us how he had lost one of them. This remark, though slightly thrown out, struck me as containing great justness of observation, and great knowledge of Homer's character.

'But though Homer is silent as to the form and position of the eye, both these circumstances, as likewise the etymology of the name, Cyclops, are mentioned with remarkable exactness in the Theogony; a poem ascribed to Hesiod, but which, I believe, is generally thought to be posterior both to him or Homer.

'Μουνος δ' οφθαλμος μεσσῳ επεκειτο μετωπῳ·
Κυκλωπες δ' ονομ' ησαν επωνυμον, οὕνεκ' αρα σφεων
Κυκλοτερης οφθαλμος εεις ενεκειτο μετωπῳ.

'Euripides, who has written a whole play on the subject of the

Cyclops, says nothing of the form of the eye, and very slightly alludes to its position; with regard to the latter, Ovid has in two passages followed Hesiod very exactly.

'Whatever may be thought of the merit of this invention in poetry, it has certainly furnished a very bad monster in painting; for the artists who have represented a Cyclops, have placed the eye, not merely in the middle of the face (which possibly *μετωπον*, as well as *frons*, might, with a little licence, be supposed to signify,) but in the exact middle of the forehead, considered separately. Callimachus, and, after him, Virgil, have given a much more picturesque image—

> 'Τοισι δ' ὑπ' οφρυν
> Φαεα μενογληνα, σακει ισα τετραβοειω
> Δεινον ὑπογλαυσοντα. Callimach. Hymnus in Dianam.

> 'Ingens, quod solum torvâ sub fronte latebat—
> Æneid, Book 3.

the exact reverse of an eye in the most open and conspicuous part of the face. Theocritus dwells particularly on the thickness and the continued length of the eye-brow—

> '——— Λασια μεν οφρυς επι παντι μετωπω,
> Εξ ωτος τεταται ποτι ωτερον ως μια μακρα.

From these descriptions, added to the general character in Homer, a much less unnatural, and, at the same time, a more terrific monster might have been produced, even supposing the popular fable to be in a great measure adopted. The eye might for instance be made central and round; but be placed, according to the authorities I have just quoted, under the forehead. Such an eye, half concealed by the overhanging eyebrow, and dreadfully gleaming from beneath it, would give a portentous character; yet still, being so accompanied, and being placed, if not in the usual situation, at least in the usual line, would not, as I conceive, have that appearance of stupid blindness, which a Polypheme in painting (before his adventure with Ulysses) always presents.

'That appearance I take to arise, not solely from a position of the eye, so different, and so distant from its usual situation, but also, because the painters have marked the sockets of the two eyes, probably from finding, that when the whole space between the brow and the cheek was filled up, the face lost its form, and became a shapeless lump: and yet, on the other hand, when the sockets of the eyes are ever so slightly indicated, it is impossible not to look there for the organs of sight; and not finding them there, the idea of blindness is unavoidably impressed. Now, I believe, that if a single eye were placed immediately above the nose, and under the brow, and no indication were made of other sockets, that single eye would, in that case, give the idea of vision. Then the one, continued, shaggy, eyebrow, so strongly and distinctly expressed by The-

critus, which seems to favour the idea of an eye in the centre, would, above all things, give a dark and savage look to the giant cannibal: for the mere junction of the eyebrows is said to have given *un air sinistre* to marshal Turenne; a man hardly less famed for the mildness of his nature than for his skill and valour in war.

'Although I have on a former occasion disclaimed any critical knowledge of the Greek language, I must add to this long note, by making an acknowledgment of the same kind. I should be sorry to be suspected of making a parade of erudition, if I really were possessed of any; much more, having no such pretensions. I thought the subject new and curious; I wished to collect, and to communicate whatever might throw light upon it; and I have on this, as on many other occasions, received great assistance from my ingenious and learned friends.' P. 114.

The second essay relates to the decorations *near* the house; in other words, the garden. We here expected to meet with some softening of Mr. Price's rigour respecting the picturesque. We fondly hoped, that he would have admitted a little regularity of smoothed, nicely cut edges of the turf, and the grass soft and matted by frequent mowing. We find, indeed, in different parts, a little relaxation in admitting the trimmed walk of gravel, as this is in general artificial; but the palinodia, if intended, is not very satisfactory. We receive, however, ample amends. The modern system of placing the insulated house on a lawn, as if brought by genii from a more characteristic situation, is justly and severely reprehended. In its naked majesty it seems misplaced, for even the den of a brute is surrounded by its kindred forest. The remarks on the Italian gardens are interesting; but we suspect that our author's predilection arises in part from having seen them in a decaying state, when the varied discolourations of the marble and the neglected trees gave a picturesque appearance and form to what might have been originally too exact for the painter's taste; as his preference of the paved terrace with the parapet is more obviously connected with the breaks arising from decay. Indeed an early predilection for a garden in the old form may have reconciled him to the flights of steps, terraces, &c. From the same source, he seems to derive the preference for the ancient upright fountains, and we cannot forbear transcribing some digressive remarks on this subject.

'The abbé de Lille, who has very pointedly ridiculed the little fountain, and the statues in a citizen's garden, and all such attempts to be magnificent in miniature, has done justice to the real magnificence and splendour of those on a large scale, and has celebrated them in verses well suited to the effects he has described. Mr. Mason, on the other hand, has altogether condemned upright fountains with their decorations, and the principle on which they are

made. He had certainly a good right to object to them in the English garden, of which he has made Simplicity the arbitress; but to condemn them absolutely, and universally, favours more of a national prejudice than of genuine comprehensive taste. As I feel something of a national pride, I am sorry to give a decided preference to the French poet in point of justness and liberality; but I have often thought that Mr. Mason's passion for the two words, simplicity and liberty, has in this, and in other instances, betrayed him into opinions and sentiments of a very contracted kind. Upon this occasion he says,

———————" Thy poet Albion scorns
E'n for a cold unconscious element
To forge the fetters he would scorn to wear."

It is difficult to say, whether Simplicity, or Liberty, would have most reason to be disgusted with so puerile a conceit.' P. 186.

The third essay relates to buildings, as connected with scenery. This essay is perhaps less satisfactory than the two others, not from any defect of the author, but from his treating the subject in general as connected with landscape painting. It is thus a part less suitable to his original design, but full of ingenious and just remarks on the conduct of those painters who have introduced architecture into their landscape scenery. Blenheim is highly praised by our author for magnificence and grandeur, and he enlarges on it with a prolixity which implies an early predilection:—but who is free from prejudices of this amiable kind, and who would wish to be free from them? The castellated form full of bold, abrupt, and, in many points of view, picturesque projections, shares also his praises; while the naked modern house, where each window has its brother, where each room surveys the same smooth trim and unvaried scene, and where the sloping roof, the dead enemy of picturesque beauty, recurs in every point of view, is severely reprobated. This essay appeared to us too extensive. The author, seemingly not always clear in his own views, wanders about his subject; and, though his wanderings are varied with skill, they at last fatigued us. The following is a favourable specimen of his criticisms.

' It seems to me that the character of the architecture made use of by the Roman and Florentine schools, taken in a general view, and with the exceptions which in such views will occur, is a sedate, solemn grandeur. That of the Venetians, taken in the same general manner, a gay and splendid magnificence. Such general characters will of course vary in each school according to the disposition of the particular master; and I think in most instances it may be observed, that the style of architecture is in unison with that of the figures. Titian, in whose figures and general concep-

tions there is often a simplicity unknown to Paul Veronese, or to Tintoret, has the same comparative simplicity in his architecture; still, however, it is of a very different cast from that of either of the schools I have mentioned. But of all the painters who have flourished since the revival of the art, none have equalled Paul Veronese, in the festive pomp, in the theatrical splendour and magnificence of his buildings. The profusion of columns, open galleries, ballustrades, balconies; of buildings seen across and behind other buildings, with various and singular effects of lineal and aërial perspective—admirably accord with the profusion of figures with which he has peopled them, and with the studied contrasts of groups and attitudes, and the richness of their dresses. As his subjects were frequently festivals and banquets, to these may often be added the rich tints and ornaments of gold and silver plate, of urns, cups, vases, &c. The immense scale of his pictures, the facility with which the whole is conducted, and the extreme clearness and brilliancy of that whole, have so captivated his countrymen, that his works are more celebrated at Venice than even those of his more exalted rival Titian.

'Tintoret, less dignified in his figures than either of his cotemporaries, was full of singular and capricious inventions; and his architecture partakes of the same character*.' P. 316.

We have expressed so much approbation of different parts of these essays that we need not add any general commendation. We have differed from Mr. Price in his principle, but we ought not on that account to omit that he deserves the highest credit for a taste equally exact and elegant, for acquisitions solid, liberal, and polished; communicated in a manner highly pleasing, though sometimes too *poignant*.

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* 'No painter, whose subjects were serious, ever placed the human figure so much, and so frequently out of the perpendicular, as Tintoret. The same liberty could not so well be taken with architecture; but there is a drawing of his, that was in Sir Joshua Reynolds's collection, and is now in my possession, where the subject has enabled him to indulge his favourite propensity on a building. He has represented the dream of a pope; who is lying in a stately bed adorned with a canopy, and supported by emblematical figures: his attendants are sleeping in the room in various and singular attitudes. Over the door, a cathedral church seems to be tumbling toward the pope, while a monk on his knees, with his hands stretched towards the portico, appears in the act of supporting it. Rays of light issue from the church, and, illuminating the face of the pope, glance upon the different ornaments of the bed, and on the sleeping attendants. Two other figures are at the door, the one lifting up the curtain of it, and discovering part of an inner room, in which is a strong effect of sunshine; the other advancing into the bedchamber. The whole composition, in point of singularity and richness of invention, of no less singular effects of light and shadow, of the style and disposition of the ornaments of the bed, the tables, and of all the furniture, is in the highest degree characteristic of that wild and capricious, but truly original painter.

Annals of the French Revolution, by A. F. Bertrand de Moleville. (Concluded from Vol. XXVII. N. A. p. 192.)

THE remaining years of the period included in these annals, teem with remarkable occurrences. The revolt of the garrison of Nanci, the insurrections in various provinces, the deprivation of the clerical non-jurors, the intrigues of Mirabeau, the flight and arrest of the king, the completion of the constitutional code, the conference at Pilnitz, and other important subjects of recital, are detailed in the two volumes which now demand our notice.

M. Bertrand treats as visionary the conspiracy imputed to M. de Maillebois; and an intelligent reader may perceive various improbabilities in the accounts of the plot. In the detail of the commotions at Nanci, he agrees in substance with the marquis de Bouillé, by whose memoirs we were enabled to place that affair in a clear light *. His concluding remarks upon it are vague and trifling: 'it has been (he says) but too clearly proved, that the result of the affair at Nanci did not save the monarchy; and it is not altogether improbable that a different result might have been of advantage to it.'

He dwells on the disgrace and retreat of M. Necker. That this minister was a better financier than statesman, and that his conduct was sometimes injudicious, we readily admit; but his intentions appear to have been good, and he wished to promote the prosperity of France.

Of the guilt of the duke of Orléans in the outrages of October, 1789, our author is fully convinced; and he offers just remarks on the report in which Chabroud vindicated that profligate nobleman, at the time of the inquiry of the legislative body into those enormities.

'I shall certainly not undertake to detail this work of darkness, this monstrous tissue of imposition and calumny vainly put together, to give the air of simple misfortunes to the most execrable crimes, and cause the authors of them to be acquitted by accusing their victims. I shall only say, that the whole art of this report, or rather of this defence, consists in mutilating, extenuating, or turning into ridicule most of the depositions; in laying great stress upon the most insignificant; and in overcoming the most positive by the shameless assertion, that what a witness swears positively he has seen and heard he may have thought he saw and heard, but that he was deceived. It was by such manifest prevarications that the advocate Chabroud succeeded in saving the duke of Orleans and his accomplices from the disgrace of a judicial condemnation, but not from the shame of having richly deserved it; for the publication of the

* See our XXIVth Vol. New Arr. p. 305.

proceedings of the Chatelet left no doubt respecting the part that had been taken by the duke in the outrages of the 5th and 6th of October.' Vol. iii. P. 109.

The debate which followed the presentation of the report is sketched with spirit; and the writer closes the account of this business with

'a sublime instance of the queen's magnanimity, worthy of her great character in those days of horror, when she was surrounded with poniards, and stood firm amidst those outrages, the authors of which the Chatelet were to discover and to prosecute. The committee of inquiry for the town having sent a deputation to her majesty to obtain such information as she might be pleased to give concerning the outrages of the 6th of October, the queen answered that she had nothing to say: "Never," added she, "will I turn informer against the king's subjects." The Chatelet sent a deputation to her majesty for the same purpose, and to these her answer was: "I saw all, I knew all, I have forgotten all." Yet this noble princess, born to do honour to the first throne in the world, and to be the idol of nations, in France found assassins! . . . executioners! . . . And those monsters are suffered still to live!' Vol. iii. P. 122.

Other debates of importance, in which Mirabeau was a leading speaker, are given *en abrégé* in the third volume, seasoned with such reflexions as the reader would expect from M. Bertrand.

The secret negotiations between Mirabeau and the king's ministers and friends are developed by our author, who alleges the information of M. de Montmorin as his chief authority. It is affirmed, that the democracy of that intriguing politician consisted 'in lowering to his own level those who were above him, but not in raising to it those who were below him.' Indeed, he was not, in strictness of speech, a democrat. He was rather a friend to monarchical government than to that polity in which the people have the chief sway. Considering him as likely to yield to courtly persuasions, Louis desired the count de L. to confer with him; and it soon appeared that he was willing to act as the friend of his sovereign. He wrote 'a very eloquent and circumstantial letter' to the king, frankly confessing his errors, and pointing out the means of averting the dangers which threatened the security of the monarchy. Louis was pleased with this epistle, and congratulated himself on the prospect of a valuable friend in the writer. Of the plan proposed by Mirabeau, M. Bertrand has no original documents: he can only refer to his own *memoranda*. The scheme was discussed in various conferences, and explained in a long memorial, which reflected great credit on the talents of

the writer, who drew a ſpirited ſketch of the leading features of the revolution, reprobated its atrocities, vindicated his patriotic intentions, and propoſed that a new national aſſembly, conſtituted on a more ſolid and legitimate baſis than the exiſting one, ſhould be convoked; that, according to the inſtructions given to the national repreſentatives by their electors, a moderate and judicious conſtitution ſhould be drawn up, and ſanctioned by the king. To promote theſe purpoſes, he adviſed that commiſſioners ſhould be ſent into the eighty-three departments, and periodical papers diſtributed, cautioning the people againſt the licentious and diſorganiſing views of the factious leaders. Theſe democrats he ſoon after openly attacked in the aſſembly, with ſuch addreſs, as not to loſe his popularity; and he obtained the confidence of the royaliſts, without encouraging them in their ſchemes of deſpotiſm. He did not live, however, to execute his project. On his death-bed, he expreſſed a high opinion of his own importance, and ſeemed to conſider himſelf as the chief prop of the monarchy. To his attendant friends he ſaid, 'It is not for me that you have occaſion to weep, but for the monarchy, which deſcends with me to the grave.'—'His words (ſays M. Bertrand) were but too true.'

Among the notes annexed to this part of the work, we meet with one that ſeems to evince an unfeeling heart.

'The abbé de Jarante, 'biſhop of Orleans, a man of no character, virtue, or talents of any kind, eſcaped death only by his diſguſting inſignificancy. His life was ſpared, becauſe he was not found worth the trouble of guillotining. Reduced, at preſent, to the loweſt ſtate of miſery, his turpitude diſgraces the very rags that cover him.' Vol. iii. p. 428.

Thus does M. Bertrand, after an incorrect aſſertion in the firſt ſentence of the paragraph, and an unmeaning remark in the ſecond, rejoice at the misfortunes and diſgrace of a democratic prieſt, not ſo much, we may ſuppoſe, from a deteſtation of his vices, as from indignation at his political conduct.

After the deceaſe of Mirabeau, various plans of counter-revolution were framed by ſome of the principal royaliſts. That which was deviſed by M. de Montmorin chiefly depended on an oſtenſible coalition between Louis and ſeveral of the European potentates, whoſe ſuppoſed views of military interference might aſſiſt the ſchemes of internal arrangement propoſed by the ariſtocratic party. As ſoon as a hoſtile manifeſto ſhould have been publiſhed by theſe potentates, the king was to repair to the frontiers, put himſelf at the head of an army, ſummon the aſſembly to the vicinity of his camp, and adjuſt a complete reconciliation between France and the adverſaries of her revolution. Louis, while he revolved dif-

ferent schemes in his mind, deputed Alphonso de Durfort to concert measures with the count d'Artois and the emperor. A meeting took place at Mantua, on the 20th of May, 1791; and a plan was adjusted for the march of a German host and other armies to the French frontiers, and for the prosecution of such measures as might rescue Louis from danger, and give him a competent degree of power and authority. It appears, that the king of Great-Britain, as elector of Hanover, was desirous of entering into the confederacy; but it was particularly stated in the agreement, that his neutrality, in his royal capacity, might be depended upon.

The emperor advised the king and queen of France to relinquish the intention which they had formed of retiring from Paris; judiciously observing, that

"the only object that ought to take up their majesties' attention, is to employ every possible means to increase their popularity, to take advantage of it when the time should come, and so that the people, alarmed at the approach of the foreign armies, should find their safety only in the king's mediation, and their submission to his majesty's authority. This is the emperor's opinion. He depends solely on this plan of conduct for the success of the measures which he has adopted, and particularly requests that every other may be given up. What might happen to their majesties, if in their flight they should not be able to escape a barbarous vigilance, makes him shudder with horror. His Imperial majesty thinks that their majesties' surest course is the movement of the armies of the allied powers, preceded by threatening manifestos." Vol. iv. p. 73.

The impatience of Louis and Antoinette, however, prompted them to hasten towards Montmedi, that they might enjoy the protection of the army commanded by the marquis de Bouillé. The particulars of their flight, and their arrest at Varennes, are well known.

We pass over several details, to arrive at the completion of the constitutional system. The king's counsellors were divided on the subject of his acceptance of the constitution. Some advised him to accept it unconditionally; others provisionally: the former prevailed, by urging the dangers which might attend a refusal. Of the state of parties at this time, a representation, to which few objections can be made, is given by M. Bertrand. We will present our readers with a part of his sketch.

'The real fabricators of the constitution, such as Target, Thouret, Emery, Desmeuniers, &c. acknowledged M. de la Fayette as their nominal leader; but before the king's departure for Montmedy they yielded, whether willingly or not, to the direction of the Lameths, Duport, and Barnave, all enemies of M. de la Fayette,

becauſe he rivalled them in popularity, and counterbalanced their power by the empire he poſſeſſed over the hearts of the bourgeois at Paris, and over all the enthuſiaſtic admirers of the Rights of Man, of which he had been the mover, ſo true is it that popular heroes conſtantly reſemble one another in one particular, which always makes them enemies when it does not unite them; the love of excluſive power.

'The king's arreſt formed a new æra in the revolution, which may be regarded as the epocha of the diſorganization of all the parties, one only excepted, which reaped an advantage from the fall of the others. The Jacobins having endeavoured in vain to bring the king to a trial, and proclaim France a republic, turned upon the conſtitutionaliſts, who oppoſed it, drove them from their poſt, and took poſſeſſion of it themſelves. Briſſot, who was then the ſoul of this club, and the chief of the ſecret committee, who directed its operations, judged very rightly that the Jacobins could not overturn this weak conſtitution by any other means than by adopting it; and that it was by declaring themſelves its guardians, they might diſcredit its authors, and ſucceed in deſtroying the remainder of royalty, which the latter had left defenceleſs.

'The leaders of the conſtitutional party ſeeing themſelves thus attacked, and in danger of being ſoon ſupplanted by the moſt ferocious revolutioniſts, divided into two ſects; one of them, hoping to retain the favour of the populace, preſerved the appearance and language of the Jacobins, who, nevertheleſs, denounced them as traitors; the other party, ſtill more odious to them, ſecretly attached themſelves to the king, without adopting or propoſing any meaſure to reſcue him from danger.' Vol. iv. p. 314.

It was before the king's aſſent had been given to the new conſtitution, that the conference at Pilnitz, which gave riſe to ſo many vague reports, occurred. Our author's account coincides with that which the reader will find in a former volume of our Review *.

To the work are annexed ſome important papers; but it is not neceſſary to particulariſe them. Upon the whole, we may recommend theſe volumes as highly uſeful to thoſe writers who may undertake the hiſtory of the French revolution. They will amuſe, and occaſionally intereſt, the general reader, though many parts may prove tedious from the author's want of animation. Of the merits of the tranſlation we cannot form an accurate judgement, as we have not ſeen the original; but we may ſafely pronounce that it is more faithful than elegant.

* Vol. XXIV. New Arr. p. 185.

Tales, Anecdotes, and Letters. Tranflated from the Arabic and Perfian. By Jonathan Scott. 8*vo.* 6*s. Boards.* Cadell *and* Davies. 1800.

THE ingenious tranflator of Ferifhta's Hiftory of India, and of the Bahar-Danufh, or Perfian Tales of Inatulla, now prefents us with one of the moft entertaining mifcellanies that can amufe thofe who read merely for pleafure, and one of the moft interefting to thofe orientalifts who feek for profit and inftruction. An ample ftock of Arabic and Perfian manufcripts has fupplied him with curious materials; and in the felection and tranflation he has evinced judgement, tafte, and abilities.

The firft part of this work (which is dedicated to Mr. Haftings) contains feveral tales from a valuable fragment of the Arabian Nights, lately procured in Bengal: thefe are tranflated with a fidelity which does not preclude animation and fpirit. The tranflations are, indeed, as literal as the difference of idioms will admit. This appears from one of the tales (the Story of the Painter), of which the original Arabic has been printed in the Oriental Collections. The hiftory of 'the Labourer and Flying Chair' occupies the firft part of this volume. Then follows the 'Story of the King, his Son, Concubine, and Seven Viziers,' which clofes the tranflation of the Arabian fragment.

In the fecond part are comprifed mifcellaneous anecdotes and jefts, tranflated from Perfian manufcripts, particularly from one entitled the *Tohfet al Mujailis*, or 'Zeft to Company,' and another, called *Uzzulleaut Ubbeed Zhakaunce*, or the '*Bons-Mots* of Ubbeed the Jefter.'

This wag was probably (as captain Scott conjectures) the droll of fome eaftern prince. At what time he exifted, the tranflator is uncertain, as the manufcript ufed by him wants 'the preface or introduction.' But we are enabled to fix the date of his exiftence with fome degree of accuracy. One of his works, in a manufcript now before us, contains a date—anno Hegiræ 677 (anno Domini 1278): this work is entitled *Kenz al Letayef*. Another date occurs in the laft diftich but one of his *Faul nameh*, anno Hegiræ 666, A. D. 1267. From this antiquity we may perhaps be induced to allow the claim of the Perfian *Ubbeed* to a multiplicity of jefts and witticifms, long afcribed to Joe Miller, or fome other parent of European origin. The writer of this article could, without much difficulty, trace many hundreds of our familiar jefts and ftories to an oriental fource, by exhibiting them in the original languages from manufcripts of indifputable authenticity and antiquity.

After this digression, we shall proceed to lay before the reader a few short anecdotes from the second part of the miscellany, some of which will throw light on the manners and customs of eastern nations, while others may excite a smile.

'It is related, that three hundred captives were brought before a conqueror, who ordered them to be put to death. A youth among them exclaimed, "Let us not, O sultaun, die thirsty *." He commanded them water, and they all drank; when the youth exclaimed, "O king, we are thy guests, and we know that thou respectest the rights of hospitality." The king released them immediately.' P. 216.

'It is related, that an oppressive prince, under whose tyranny his subjects had long groaned, suddenly altered his conduct, and became just and beneficent. A favourite, who had the liberty of saying what he pleased, one day enquired the cause of this alteration in his conduct. The prince replied, "I was one day hunting, when I beheld a dog gnawing savagely the leg of a fox. An attendant threw a stone at the fox, but it missed him, and broke the leg of the dog. At that instant a horse kicked the attendant, and maimed him; when immediately the horse's foot sunk into a hole, and he was lamed. The sight of such retribution of injuries awakened me from the slumber of heedlessness, and I became sensible, that tyranny could not long be borne in the world; that every foot must rise against it, and every arm be uplifted to drive it from the earth." P. 222.

'Hashim, son of the caliph Abd al Malek, coming out of his palace, met a one-eyed person, whom he commanded to be seized and imprisoned. "What is my fault?" said the unhappy wretch. "Thou art one-eyed," exclaimed the tyrant, and meeting a one-eyed person is ominous of ill luck †". "Gracious heaven! (rejoined the man) if the having only one eye is unlucky, it can be only so to himself; but meeting a tyrant is an omen of ill to others. Perceivest thou not, that thy meeting me has done thee no harm, while my meeting thee hath involved me in misfortune?" Hashim was confounded, and released the unfortunate man.' P. 226.

'A respectable personage has related, that when Nadir Shaw had conquered Hindoostan, and possessed himself of Dhely. the unfortunate emperor Mahummud Shaw was confined to his haram in the

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* 'To understand this, it is necessary to know, that in the uncorrupted times of the orientals, a drop of water, or any office of hospitality, shewn to an enemy, was a signal of forgiveness. In history, we meet with frequent instances of the most revengeful being surprized into clemency, by such stratagems as this anecdote relates. Possibly the prisoners were sometimes instructed by the princes to practise it, in order to save the effusion of blood.'

† 'The Asiatics are at present as superstitious as the antients.'

citadel. While he and the nobles were anxiouſly waiting the deciſion of the conqueror reſpecting them, Nadir ſuddenly commanded them to his preſence; and ſeating Mahummud on the throne with himſelf, thus addreſſed Kummir ad Dien, the vizier of Hindooſtan: "I have heard much of the muſical performers of this country; let ſome be admitted." Noor Bhay, the moſt celebrated of her day for ſinging and dancing, was ſent for *. She perceived that Nadir looked joyous, and full of ſpirits; while Mahummud Shaw was dejected, and low. She ſang, with exquiſite feeling, the following verſe:

"At the ſorrows or joys of this world, be neither depreſſed, or elated,

"For each alternately prevail."

'Mahummud was ſo affected, that he burſt into tears; at ſight of which the whole court ſighed, and Nadir held down his head, involved in thought, for a conſiderable time. After an awful pauſe, he recovered himſelf, and having ordered a lack of rupees to be given to Noor Bhay, took off his koollah, and preſenting it to Mahummud, ſaid, "Will it be accepted?" Mahummud, pulling off his turban, replied, "On condition that you take this in exchange." Nadir placed the turban upon his own head, and ſaid, "May the empire of Hindooſtan be as formerly auſpicious to my brother!" A general burſt of acclamation filled the aſſembly, and aſcended to the heavens.' P. 231.

'Byram Khan was one day at his dinner, when one of the attendants burſt into tears. Byram aſked the cauſe, when the youth ſaid, "that the delicacies before him had reminded him of thoſe he had enjoyed in the houſe of his father, who was a reduced gentleman." Byram replied, "If thou haſt really been uſed to good living, tell me which is the niceſt part of a fowl?" "The ſkin," anſwered the youth †. Byram promoted him in his houſehold.

'Some days after this, another domeſtic, hoping to be noticed, while the khan was eating, blubbered dreadfully. The ſame queſtion was aſked, and anſwer given. Byram, ſuſpecting a trick, ſaid, "Tell me which is the niceſt part of a bullock?" "The ſkin," replied the impoſtor. Byram laughed, but made the fooliſh fellow a handſome preſent. P. 259.

'Hatiffee, the author of the much-admired poem of Leila and Mujjenou, was ſiſter's ſon to Jami, to whom, when the work was finiſhed, he carried it for peruſal, requeſting his prayers for its ſucceſs. Jami was delighted, and highly praiſed the performance. Hatiffee exclaimed, "Would that I had written it ſooner, ſo that

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* 'Numberleſs are the anecdotes of this lady's muſical powers, faſcination, prodigality, and ſtrange mixture of virtues and vices.'

† 'The ſkin, with forced meat ſtuffed under it, is eſteemed a delicacy in the eaſt.'

ere now my work might have been publickly known!" "If all thou wanteſt is celebrity," ſaid Jami, "let it be hung up in the great market-place of the city, that all may ſee it." "True, my lord," ſaid Hatiffee, "but how will they know the author?" Jami replied, "Why, hang up thyſelf cloſe to the book, that all may be convinced who was the compoſer." P. 304.

'A taylor following the army was wounded in the head by an arrow. When the ſurgeon ſaw the wound, he told his patient, that as the weapon had not touched his brain, there was no doubt of his recovery. The taylor ſaid, "If I had poſſeſſed any brains, I ſhould not have been here." P. 306.

'In a ſeaſon of great drought, in Perſia, a ſchoolmaſter at the head of his pupils marched out of Shirauz in proceſſion, to pray for rain; when a humorous fellow aſked where they were going? The tutor told him, and ſaid, "He doubted not but God would liſten to the prayers of innocent children." "My friend," ſaid the humouriſt, "if that was the caſe, I fear there would be no ſchoolmaſters left alive." P. 315.

'A very bad performer once in a coffee-houſe ſang repeatedly in a ſhocking tone, "Let a lover do what he may, he is excuſeable." The company were offended at his diſcord, but he would not deſiſt. At length, a young fellow threw a cup of ſherbet in his face, and the muſician being enraged, the humouriſt cried out, "I am in love, I am in love, as all my friends here well know." The muſician was forced to retire from the cutting laughter of the company.' P. 316.

'A man married, and his wife when ſeen by him proved to be very ugly. A few days after the nuptials, ſhe ſaid to him, "My life, as you have numerous relations, I wiſh you would inform me before whom of them I may unveil." "My ſoul," ſaid the man, "if thou wilt but conceal thy face from me, I care not to whom thou ſheweſt it." P. 318.

'A profligate fellow ſaid to a woman, "Let me kiſs thee, that I may know who kiſſes beſt, thou, or my wife." "Go, and aſk my huſband," ſaid ſhe, "for he can tell thee, as he has kiſſed both of us." P. 319.

'An aſtrologer was condemned to the gibbet, when ſome one aſked him why he did not foreſee his fate, and avoid it. "I ſaw clearly (ſaid he) that I was to be exalted, but I did not enquire of the ſtars how it was to be." P. 323.

'A profligate infidel had embraced the muſſulmaun faith. When

he was circumcised, the divines told him that he was now become as it were new born. About six months after his conversion, he was accused, by some zealous neighbours, of neglecting the rites of religion, and not saying his prayers. "My dear friends," said he, "I am but six months old, and did you ever hear of one at my age being able to pray?" P. 326.

'At a banquet, when solving enigmas was one of the diversions, Alexander said to his courtiers, "What is that which did not come last year, has not come this year, and will not come next year?" A distressed officer starting up, said, "It certainly must be our arrears of pay." The king was so diverted, that he commanded him to be paid up, and also encreased his salary.' P. 329.

'A preacher in a mosque began the history of Noah, with this quotation from the Koraun, "I have called Noah;" but, forgetting the rest of the verse, repeated the same words over and over. At length, an Arab cried out, "If Noah will not come, call somebody else." P. 331.

The third part of this volume consists of letters from the emperor Aurungzebe, translated in a masterly manner from a Persian manuscript collection in three volumes, entitled *Adaub Aulumgeeree*, or 'Complimentary Epistles of Aulumgeer,' preserved by his *Meer Moonshi*, or principal Persian secretary. Aurungzebe, who on his accession to the throne assumed the title of *Aulumgeer*, or 'Conqueror of the World,' exhibits in these letters his artful character and his affected zeal in the cause of religion; for, while he was meditating his own aggrandisement by the perpetration of enormous crimes, even the deposition and imprisonment of his own father, the emperor Shah Jehaun, the murder of two brothers, and the expulsion of another, he adopted a cant of fanaticism, which, as captain Scott justly observes, reminds us of Cromwell's 'seeking the Lord.'

We shall not, by any other extracts, anticipate the pleasure which will be found in the perusal of this work. The letters will prove valuable materials to future writers on the affairs of Hindoostan during the middle of the seventeenth century; and the volume cannot fail of being favourably received, as it is entertaining, interesting, and instructive.

Travels from England to India, in the Year 1789, by the Way of the Tyrol, Venice, Scandaroon, Aleppo, and over the Great Deſart to Buſſora; with Inſtructions for Travellers; and an Account of the Expence of Travelling, &c. By Major John Taylor, of the Bombay Eſtabliſhment; Author of Conſiderations on a more ſpeedy Communication between Great-Britain and her Eaſtern Dependencies. 2 Vols. 8vo. 15s. Boards. Carpenter. 1799.

THIS work recommends itſelf to the general reader by a variety of entertaining anecdotes and a recital of intereſting adventures, and to the oriental traveller, by the uſeful tables and minute ſtatements which it contains. In the introduction to the firſt volume, the ingenious author inquires how far the communication by the deſert, between the eaſtern and weſtern worlds, has been beneficial to mankind. He begins with the epoch when Alexander penetrated to India by the route of Perſia, and traces the origin of our commercial intercourſe, and the gradations by which we have aſcended to our preſent pre-eminence and political influence in the ſcale of nations. From this introduction we will extract the concluding paſſage.

'In the midſt of this arduous and expenſive warfare, in which the political horizon daily wears a new complection, the Britiſh miniſtry will no doubt bear in mind the claims of this country to a port or ports in the Mediterranean. Now is the moment when a permanent eſtabliſhment ſhould be effected; and the Iſland of Candia at once preſents itſelf as the object of our choice. Such is the ſtate of the Turkiſh empire, that the Porte would readily cede this valuable and important iſland to the crown of Britain.

'It would appear that the French, like other reformers, have attempted to make religion ſubſervient to their purpoſe, and to become acceſſary in ſome meaſure to ambition and plunder. The ſhrine of the prophet, the chapel of Loretto, the pope, the ſherreeff of Mecca, and the lama, are equally reſpected. I heard of a new religion while I was in Arabia, which had been recently eſtabliſhed, and, what was moſt extraordinary, in the vicinity of Mecca; but the doctrines which it inculcated had not ſpread beyond the bounds of a particular family, and it was by no means likely to become general, or to extend over a country where prejudice and enthuſiaſm are ſo ſtrongly rooted, and innovation ſo dangerous, and where the paſſions of the inhabitants and the influence of climate tend equally to ſupport and promote the precepts of Mahomet. The deſtiny of Buonaparte is fixed; and although the ſplendour of his former days may hereafter illumine the page of hiſtory, his expedition to Egypt will be recorded as an act of extravagance and folly.' P. 35.

We now proceed to the journal of major Taylor, who, having procured a coach for the journey through Europe, and furnifhed himfelf with a confiderable ftock of portable foup, curry powder, and good tea, (articles recommended to all who undertake an expedition to India over land) fet out from London with his lady, Mr. Blackader, an ingenious furgeon of the Madras eftablifhment, and two fervants, one a native of Bengal, who proved of little fervice, the other an Italian, whofe verfatility of talents, and dexterity in the operations of cook, tailor, &c. rendered him highly ufeful. Embarking at Dover, the party arrived at Oftend on the 24th of Auguft, 1789. The travellers then proceeded through Germany to Venice; and, after a tedious paffage from that port, they reached the ifland of Zante. Here the polite attention of Mr. Speridion Forrefti, the Britifh conful (a native of Genoa), is acknowledged by major Taylor, who relates the following anecdote of this gentleman.

'Mr. Forrefti's merit, and his fervices to the Englifh, was often evinced; but it was more confpicuoufly fo in the bold and fuccefsful attempt by which he regained and reftored to the infurers the Grand Duchefs of Tufcany, an Englifh veffel, with a cargo on board, valued at no lefs a fum than 80,000l. In the voyage from Leghorn, fhe was feized by a noted pirate of the name of Vifcillie, who, with only three others, had entered on board as common feamen. After killing the chief mate and helmfman, off the ifland of Corfica, and turning the paffengers and crew on fhore, which was fuffered in a manner, I muft fay, derogatory to the character of Englifhmen, he failed for Zante, and caft anchor on the eaft fide of the ifland, with a view to obtain feamen to conduct the prize to fome market where he might difpofe of the property. In this fituation, being unable to procure the neceffary affiftance, and information being received by Mr. Forrefti of the true ftate of the cafe, he determined to retake the fhip, and accordingly fet out with a party of twenty men, the greateft part of whom he concealed behind a ridge of rocks, in the large boat in which he had left Zante: taking the fmall boat with four trufty, determined fellows, with concealed arms, he rowed towards the fhip, but on coming along-fide he was pofitively refufed admittance on board.—After a parley of half an hour, Vifcellie agreed to receive him fingly. The pirate candidly acknowledged to Mr. Forrefti the manner in which he had obtained poffeffion of the fhip, but refufed, on any terms, to deliver her up. They went to the great cabin, where they drank plentifully of grog. A barrel of gunpowder and a match was placed on the table, with a fentinel ready to blow up the veffel on any appearance of coercion. Returning to the quarter-deck, Mr. Forrefti found the opportunity would be loft if he quitted the fhip before effecting his purpofe, as the wind was fair, and the pirate had determined that

evening to cut the cables, for he could not raiſe the anchor, and to truſt his prize with the Greeks of the Morea. With the moſt undaunted reſolution Mr. Forreſti drew a piſtol from his pocket, with which he wounded Viſcillie under the left breaſt. The monſter endeavoured to give the concerted ſignal to the ſentinel below, by ſtamping with his foot on the deck; but this was prevented by the activity of Mr. Forreſti, who tripped up his heels, when he fell with violence againſt one of the quarter-deck guns. The Zanteze ſeamen in the boat were now called on board, who immediately ſecured Viſcillie's companions, and particularly the perſon below, who, ſeeing his chief wounded and a priſoner, had not ſufficient firmneſs to execute his dreadful purpoſe. Thus, by the means of one man, was a valuable ſhip and cargo reſcued from the hands of a pirate, whoſe indefatigable zeal in the purſuit of villany, his courage, his addreſs, and his enormities, leaves him ſcarcely an equal. Viſcillie was a native of Dalmatia, of low extraction, but whoſe mind was capable of executing the moſt determined enterprizes. At one time he was made priſoner by the Venetians, at Caſtle Novo, in the bay of Cattaro, when, to effect his eſcape, he had the addreſs to prevail on the ſentinel under whoſe charge he was to rob his officer, ſet himſelf at liberty, and even to accompany him in his flight. Strange to relate, that at the diſtance of a few miles from the place of his confinement, he had the atrocity to murder his liberator for the ſake of a booty, amounting to no more than fourteen Venetian chequins!

'Mr. Forreſti was handſomely rewarded for his bravery and reſolution, and was appointed Britiſh conſul at Zante on the death of Mr. Sargent.' P. 119.

On the 28th of November our author landed at Scanderoon, and on the 30th began his *over-land* journey. We will halt with him a moment at Antioch—the remains of a magnificent city, but at preſent inhabited by a race the moſt inhoſpitable to ſtrangers, eſpecially to Chriſtians, of any in the Eaſt: indeed the major declares that this was the only place in which he and his companions ſuffered any inſult or incivility.

'In proceeding to the caravanſerai we had the mortification to be ſpit at, with the appellation of "Chriſtian dogs!" Mrs. Taylor was ſeized by the arm, and attempted to be pulled from her horſe with a degree of brutal violence: one of the ſervants luckily held her faſt, but her arm bore evident teſtimony of the rude manner in which the men made the attempt. My Italian ſervant was ſeized by the coat, but a ſpirited ſtroke from his horſewhip made the fellow quit his hold. The black was more roughly treated, and he had the imprudence to preſent his piſtol at one of the moſt daring. I ſeverely reprehended him for his folly, conſidering the brutality of the people, and their diſlike to Chriſtians; if any accident had happened, it would have moſt undoubtedly proved fatal to the whole

party. In turning the corner of a ſtreet, a young fellow attempted to ſnatch away my whip; neither did he relinquiſh it till after ſome ſtruggle between us. I have given ſome features of the inhabitants of Antioch, and what a traveller may expect. I would adviſe avoiding the town, and rather to ſeek any ſhelter than ſo inhoſpitable a place. A tent would have been a thouſand times preferable, but this we had not. Another thing that perhaps made againſt us, was the European dreſs: it would be therefore better to appear à la Turque as ſoon as poſſible after your arrival in Syria.' Vol. i. p. 184.

As common opinion differs not a little from that of our author on the ſubject of the Turks, we will quote the following paſſage.

'As we continued to aſcend the riſing ground above Antioch, we were met by a party of Turkiſh cavalry, proceeding againſt the rebel pacha of Payas. This detachment appeared well clothed and armed, and tolerably mounted. They were led by an officer, who came gently along ſmoking his pipe on horſeback. We accoſted him in the eaſtern ſtyle, which he politely returned. One of his ſoldiers obſerving ſome cold meat in a baſket, requeſted the leg of a fowl, which was immediately given to him. I always found the Turkiſh ſoldiers open in their communications, generous in their diſpoſitions, and free from the vulgar and enthuſiaſtic prejudices common to their religion. Our travelling companions, the janizaries, already taken notice of, daily invited us to partake of their bread and fruit. In return, our wine and meat was to them a grateful preſent, and I found hoſpitality, good humour, and complacency, blended in men trained to the profeſſion of arms, and inhabiting a country where the mild manners of cultivated ſociety had been exchanged for the ferocious bigotry of fanatic Mahomedans and the Scythian manners of the predatory Turcoman.' Vol. i. p. 194.

Proceeding from Aleppo with a caravan, the major arrived, after many accidents and adventures, at Buſſora, where he was received with much kindneſs and politeneſs by Mr. Maneſty, the Britiſh reſident. During his ſtay at Buſſora, he committed to paper his obſervations on the genius and manner of the Arabs; and the reader will derive both pleaſure and inſtruction from the abſtract which he gives in p. 273, &c. The following remarks may be uſeful to travellers.

'I ſhall now ſay a few words on the different modes of travelling between Aleppo and Buſſora. In whatever manner a traveller may be inclined to proſecute his journey, he ſhould unequivocally appear to place the greateſt confidence in his Arab conductors. This will bind the Arab to him, and direct thoſe feelings of honour to his protection and ſafety, in which his mind, in certain inſtances, is particularly ſuſceptible.

'Should expence be an object with the traveller, he should accompany a Tartar or government expreſs, or hire a few deſart Arabs, who, mounted on dromedaries, will travel fifty miles a day, and ſo reach Buſſora in ſixteen days. In this ſituation a traveller muſt be contented to fare with the Arab, and to ſpread his carpet at night on the barren deſart, with an unclouded ſky for his canopy.

'Should the traveller have comfort in view, a caravan muſt be hired at the expence of five or ſix hundred pounds: for this ſum from forty to ſixty armed men may be obtained, and twenty camels for himſelf, to convey water, tents, and other neceſſaries. This force will be ſufficient to protect him againſt the roving predatory Arabs; for the principal ſheicks, I have already hinted, are paid for permiſſion to paſs the deſart. In this mode, early in the ſpring or ſummer, the journey may be performed in twenty-one days, though not comfortably; and, if expedition is not much required, I would adviſe thirty-ſix days being allowed. Either of theſe modes is equally ſecure; but the firſt is diſagreeable and unpleaſant to an European, who is not accuſtomed to ride like an Arab, and to ſleep with a ſingle covering on the barren deſart, while his dromedary picks up a ſcanty ſubſiſtence, to drink bad water, and to eat dates and barley bread. For theſe reaſons, I condemn Europeans being ever employed to carry diſpatches either out or home, where expedition is required. It is ſafer and cheaper to diſpatch three expreſſes by different routes, than to truſt one European. Letters in cypher falling into any hands can be rarely attended with bad conſequences; and it would be hard indeed if one did not eſcape.

'The ſecond mode is attended with great expence and delay; not ſo much the delay on the deſart, as the preparations neceſſary for a perſon travelling in the ſtyle of an eaſtern prince, with his guards, ſcouts, tents, and an innumerable liſt of expenſive and unneceſſary things. At either Aleppo or Buſſora an outfit of this kind would require from ten days to a fortnight; but the circumſtance of there being ſeldom any preparations ready for a journey not often undertaken, and the removal of our conſul from Aleppo, will conſiderably add to a traveller's diſtreſs and inconvenience.

'A gentleman taking this route for curioſity ſhould allow ſufficient time to examine the ruins of ancient caſtles and towns he ſometimes finds near to his route; and the ruins of Tadmore or Palmyra would repay his curioſity, if there was nothing further to gratify his inquiries.

'He ſhould alſo allow himſelf ſufficient time to partake of the amuſements the deſart affords in hunting and ſhooting. There is no place in the world where courſing could be practiſed with ſo much pleaſure. The Arabs have excellent greyhounds, but their hawks are ſuperior to any other in the univerſe. Hawking on ſo extenſive a plain, where a horſe can gallop in any direction, muſt, to an amateur, be ſuperlatively delightful.

'In the neighbourhood of Aleppo, particularly in the Black Mountains, and near to Sfiri, partridges are very plenty; there are few on the desart, excepting in the summer, at certain places, where they collect for water. A few teal and wild duck are sometimes seen, and also birds of the gregarious kind, something about the size and colour of a black partridge.' Vol. i. p. 293.

We must not pass over, unnoticed, an anecdote concerning Mr. Latouche, since it reflects honour on that gentleman and the British nation, by which he was employed as resident at Bussora, before Mr. Manesty.

'No man ever deserved better at the hands of the Arabs, or was more highly respected and esteemed amongst them, than Mr. Latouche; his wonderful humanity and boundless generosity to the unhappy captives of Zebeer, had gained him their warmest affection. When Bussora was besieged by the Persians, he sheltered within his own walls, and under the protection of the factory and the English flag, the principal people, with their wives and families, and when the miserable inhabitants of Zebeer, according to the custom of the Persians to prisoners taken in war, became the slaves of their opponents, he ransomed them without distinction at his own expence.' Vol. i. p. 302.

The result of our author's observations on travelling among the Arabs may be summed up in the following extracts.

'In the first place, never to display ostentatious finery, and excite the crime of avarice in the heart of an Arab.

'2dly. To observe an equality of temper to even the lowest Arab of your caravan, to forgive his little impertinent curiosity, smile at his wonder and surprise, and appear as much as possible to be on an equal footing.

'3dly. In cases of petty thefts, or of being insulted, which is seldom the case, never to chastise the offender yourself; coolly represent the fact to the sheick, who will do ample justice, and with more strictness than perhaps you would require.

'4thly. Never to mix with strangers or quit your encampment, or wander into the villages or huts of other Arabs without a proper guard: those who are bound to protect you will most assuredly do it; but you must by no means look for civil treatment without the precincts of your own tribe.

'5thly. In every matter relative to the desart be entirely guided by the sheick: in short, appear to have no will of your own, but be entirely under his protection. The more confidence you appear to put in an Arab the better he is pleased, and the more he will find his honour interested, and consequently afford you safe escort and protection.

'6thly. Put on the dress of the natives as soon as possible after your landing in a Mahomedan country, or even before, if you can

procure it: and the dreſs I would adviſe to be correſpondent to the manner in which you propoſe to travel, but never to be beyond that of the middling ranks of life.

'Although it is ſcarcely poſſible to diſguiſe yourſelf from the knowledge of a Turk or Arab, even with the help of whiſkers, and obſerving a ſtrict ſilence, yet it evinces a reſpect for the people, and a wiſh to be conſidered on a friendly footing with the inhabitants, who feel themſelves not a little gratified at this mark of attention, and will frequently confer a favour on this account when they would refuſe common civility to any perſon in the dreſs of an European: upon the whole, it is a fact to be depended on, that the Arabians of the deſart pay more reſpect and attention to a Chriſtian than they do to a Turk, for whom they entertain a rooted averſion and inviolable diſlike.' Vol. i. p. 315.

The party embarked at Buſſora, and landed at Buſhire, a ſmall town ſituated on the Perſian coaſt, in the Gulf of Hormuz. Here our author obſerved that the articles of commerce with which Perſia abounds are various and important; and he particularly mentions fine carpets, wrought ſilver and pearls, excellent tobacco and cotton.

'The principal commodities taken in return are, Engliſh broadcloth, particularly ſcarlet and yellow. Mancheſter printed cottons were ſuggeſted as likely to anſwer the Perſian market. Some of the moſt brilliant patterns were ſelected and ſent to Buſhire; but they by no means ſuited the taſte of the Perſians: what appeared extremely handſome in the eyes of an European was diſregarded by that people; and the more ſimple, though perhaps not leſs elegant, patterns of their own were preferred. It might be worth while to carry the experiment a little further, and it would very well repay the trouble and expence, provided ſo material a branch of our manufactures could be introduced into Perſia. The experiment to which I allude is, to print on fine cotton, figures, ſuch as are common in India and Perſia, with the moſt vivid colours that can be procured, and, in ſhort, by variety and attention to their national taſte and character, induce them to become purchaſers of thoſe and ſuch of our commodities as are the manufacture of Great-Britain.' Vol. i. p. 345.

On the 22d of February, 1790, our travellers landed at Bombay, and found that hoſtilities had commenced between the Britiſh and the ſultan Tippoo. On the ſubject of this tyrant, major Taylor obſerves, that

'The cruelties exerciſed on his unhappy ſubjects riveted the principles of diſguſt and deteſtation. Aſſuming the character of his prophet, he wantonly, and in cold blood, deſtroys the natural poſſeſſion of the country, who refuſe to reject the religion of their anceſtors to aſſume that of Mahomed; and I declare that I have my-

ſelf witneſſed a ſight of barbarity unknown in any civiliſed nation, where the unfortunate Hindoos have been hanged by dozens on trees by the road ſide, or ſuſpended on hedge rows, as they were caught in the vain attempt of eluding their ſanguinary purſuers; a ſcene only to be equalled by the ferocious buccaneers in the act of hunting the timid Indians with blood-hounds and maſtiffs.

'Theſe horrible cruelties ſerve to keep in awe his ſubjects of a lower claſs, but policy induces him to attach the principal officers, military and civil, and where his intereſt is concerned, no man is more liberal of either reward or promotion. Under the eye of Tippoo his army fight with courage and alacrity; but his detachments have uniformly given way with little oppoſition, and ſtill leſs conduct.

'His troops are hired by the month, but his month is arbitrary. Thirty, forty, and even fifty days, conſtitute their duration, and the ſtate of his treaſury, or his own whim, regulates the calendar.' Vol. i. p. 363.

The firſt volume concludes with an account of the war in India, and many judicious obſervations on our eaſtern politics, and on other topics.

The ſecond volume, although the leaſt intereſting to a mere European reader, will be more highly prized by the orientaliſt and the traveller. To the latter, indeed, it muſt prove a *vade-mecum*, or manual, of very great utility. Its contents are miſcellaneous. We find the route by Suez accurately laid down, with remarks on the Red Sea—monſoons—periodical rains in India—inſtructions for gentlemen going by land to India—expenſes, articles neceſſary for the journey—preſervation of health—obſervations made at Bednore, in India—Mahratta war—Zemaun Shaw, king of Candahar—Regulations relative to ſending letters over-land—Account of the palm-tree—Various routes—Inſtructions for paſſing the deſert—Current money of different countries, &c. To the firſt volume is prefixed a map of the countries between Great-Britain and the Eaſt-Indies, with major Taylor's route; to the ſecond volume, a map, delineating his route from Aleppo to Buſſora, acroſs the great deſert, in 1789 and 1790; both neatly engraven and coloured.

The Farmer's Boy; a Rural Poem, in four Books. By Robert Bloomfield. With Ornaments engraved in Wood by Anderſon. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Vernor *and* Hood. 1800.

LIKE the work of Thomſon, this poem is divided into four parts, named from the four ſeaſons; but it muſt not therefore be ſuppoſed that the author is an imitator. The

character of the Farmer's Boy, whose occupations are described throughout the year, gives a wholeness and originality to the plan. This plan is proposed in the opening lines.

'Spring.

'O come, blest spirit! whatsoe'er thou art,
Thou rushing warmth that hovers round my heart,
Sweet inmate, hail! thou source of sterling joy,
That poverty itself cannot destroy,
Be thou my Muse; and faithful still to me,
Retrace the paths of wild obscurity.
No deeds of arms my humble lines rehearse,
No Alpine wonders thunder through my verse,
The roaring cataract, the snow-topt hill,
Inspiring awe, till breath itself stands still:
Nature's sublimer scenes ne'er charm'd mine eyes,
Nor Science led me through the boundless skies;
From meaner objects far my raptures flow:
O point these raptures! bid my bosom glow!
And lead my soul to ecstacies of praise
For all the blessings of my infant days!
Bear me through regions where gay Fancy dwells;
But mould to Truth's fair form what Memory tells.

'Live, trifling incidents, and grace my song,
That to the humblest menial belong;
To him whose drudgery unheeded goes,
His joys unreckon'd as his cares or woes:
Though joys and cares in every path are sown,
And youthful minds have feelings of their own;
Quick springing sorrows, transient as the dew;
Delights from trifles, trifles ever new.
'Twas thus with Giles: meek, fatherless, and poor;
Labour his portion, but he felt no more;
No stripes, no tyranny his steps pursu'd;
His life was constant, cheerful, servitude:
Strange to the world, he wore a bashful look,
The fields his study, Nature was his book;
And, as revolving seasons chang'd the scene
From heat to cold, tempestuous to serene,
Though every change still varied his employ,
Yet each new duty brought its share of joy.' P. 3.

As Suffolk, the author's county, is the scene of the poem, descriptions of the sublimer scenes of nature are not to be expected: but in every country the poet can find objects of beauty; and our extracts will abundantly prove that Robert Bloomfield possesses the eye and the feeling of a poet.

After a description of the business of seed time, the dairy is introduced; and the author celebrates the cheese of his own county.

'Unrivall'd ſtands thy country cheeſe, O Giles!
Whoſe very name alone engenders ſmiles;
Whoſe fame abroad by every tongue is ſpoke,
The well-known butt of many a flinty joke,
That paſs like current coin the nation through;
And, ah! experience proves the ſatire true.
Proviſion's grave, thou ever craving mart,
Dependant, huge metropolis! where Art
Her poring thouſands ſtows in breathleſs rooms,
'Midſt pois'nous ſmokes and ſteams, and rattling looms;
Where Grandeur revels in unbounded ſtores;
Reſtraint, a ſlighted ſtranger at their doors!
Thou, like a whirlpool, drain'ſt the countries round,
Till London market, London price, reſound
Through every town, round every paſſing load,
And dairy produce throngs the eaſtern road:
Delicious veal, and butter, every hour,
From Eſſex lowlands, and the banks of Stour;
And further far, where numerous herds repoſe,
From Orwell's brink, from Weveny, or Ouſe.
Hence Suffolk dairy-wives run mad for cream,
And leave their milk with nothing but its name;
Its name deriſion and reproach purſue,
And ſtrangers tell of "three times ſkim'd ſky-blue."
To cheeſe converted, what can be its boaſt?
What, but the common virtues of a poſt!
If drought o'ertake it faſter than the knife,
Moſt fair it bids for ſtubborn length of life,
And, like the oaken ſhelf whereon 'tis laid,
Mocks the weak efforts of the bending blade;
Or in the hog-trough reſts in perfect ſpite,
Too big to ſwallow, and too hard to bite.
Inglorious victory! Ye Cheſhire meads,
Or Severn's flow'ry dales, where plenty treads,
Was your rich milk to ſuffer wrongs like theſe,
Farewell your pride! farewell renowned cheeſe!
The ſkimmer dread, whoſe ravages alone
Thus turn the mead's ſweet nectar into ſtone.' P. 16.

In ſummer, the farmer's boy is employed to drive the ſparrows from the green corn. In this paſſage many lines occur of uncommon beauty.

'Shot up from broad rank blades that droop below,
The nodding wheat-ear forms a graceful bow,
With milky kernels ſtarting full, weigh'd down,
Ere yet the ſun hath ting'd its head with brown;
Whilſt thouſands in a flock, for ever gay,
Loud chirping ſparrows welcome on the day,

And from the mazes of the leafy thorn
Drop one by one upon the bending corn;
Giles with a pole affails their clofe retreats,
And round the grafs-grown dewy border beats,
On either fide completely overfpread,
Here branches bend, there corn o'ertops his head.
Green covert, hail! for through the varying year
No hours fo fweet, no fcene to him fo dear.
Here Wifdom's placid eye delighted fees
His frequent intervals of lonely eafe,
And with one ray his infant foul infpires,
Juft kindling there her never-dying fires,
Whence folitude derives peculiar charms,
And heaven-directed thought his bofom warms.
Juft where the parting bough's light fhadows play,
Scarce in the fhade, nor in the fcorching day,
Stretch'd on the turf he lies, a peopled bed,
Where fwarming infects creep around his head.
The fmall duft-colour'd beetle climbs with pain
O'er the fmooth plantain-leaf, a fpacious plain!
Thence higher ftill, by countlefs fteps convey'd,
He gains the fummit of a fhiv'ring blade,
And flirts his filmy wings, and looks around,
Exulting in his diftance from the ground.
The tender fpeckled moth here dancing feen,
The vaulting grafshopper of gloffy green,
And all prolific Summer's fporting train,
Their little lives by various pow'rs fuftain.
But what can unaffifted vifion do?
What, but recoil where moft it would purfue;
His patient gaze but finifh with a figh,
When mufic waking fpeaks the fky-lark nigh.
Juft ftarting from the corn fhe cheerly fings,
And trufts with confcious pride her downy wings;
Still louder breathes, and in the face of day
Mounts up, and calls on Giles to mark her way.
Clofe to his eyes his hat he inftant bends,
And forms a friendly telefcope, that lends
Juft aid enough to dull the glaring light,
And place the wand'ring bird before his fight;
Yet oft beneath a cloud fhe fweeps along,
Loft for awhile, yet pours her varied fong:
He views the fpot, and as the cloud moves by,
Again fhe ftretches up the clear blue fky;
Her form, her motion, undiftinguifh'd quite,
Save when fhe wheels direct from fhade to light:
The flutt'ring fongftrefs a mere fpeck became,
Like fancy's floating bubbles in a dream;

He ſees her yet, but yielding to repoſe,
Unwittingly his jaded eyelids cloſe.
Delicious ſleep! From ſleep who could forbear,
With no more guilt than Giles, and no more care?
Peace o'er his ſlumbers waves her guardian wing,
Nor conſcience once diſturbs him with a ſting;
He wakes refreſh'd from every trivial pain,
And takes his pole and bruſhes round again.' P. 30.

This poem abounds with beautiful lines of accurate and minute deſcription. Several ſuch have occurred in the paſſages already extracted. Objects that would have eſcaped common writers are here noticed, and ſo brought before the eye that every reader recogniſes the truth of the picture; and even trite circumſtances appear original in the diſcriminating language of this poet.

Thus, in deſcribing the plowman at his work, he ſays,

' Strong on the wing his buſy followers play,
Where writhing earth-worms meet th' unwelcome day.' P. 7.

' Stopt in her ſong perchance the ſtarting thruſh
Shook a white ſhower from the black-thorn buſh,
Where dew-drops thick as early bloſſoms hung,
And trembled as the minſtrel ſweetly ſung.' P. 11.

A ſimilar image is very happily expreſſed in the following couplet.

' —— if a gale with ſtrength unuſual blow,
Scattering the wild-brier roſes into ſnow.'

We may alſo praiſe the deſcription of the country girl in the account of harveſt—the maſtiff—and the admirable line which begins the paſſage

' Hark! where the ſweeping ſcythe now *rips* along:
Each ſturdy mower emulous and ſtrong;
Whoſe writhing form meridian heat defies,
Bends o'er his work, and every ſinew tries;
Proſtrates the waving treaſure at his feet,
But ſpares the riſing clover, ſhort and ſweet.
Come, Health! come, Jollity! light-footed, come;
Here hold your revels, and make this your home.
Each heart awaits and hails you as its own;
Each moiſten'd brow, that ſcorns to wear a frown:
Th' unpeopled dwelling mourns its tenants ſtray'd;
E'en the domeſtic laughing dairy-maid
Hies to the field, the general toil to ſhare.
Meanwhile the farmer quits his elbow-chair,

His cool brick-floor, his pitcher, and his eafe,
And braves the fultry beams, and gladly fees
His gates thrown open, and his team abroad,
The ready group attendant on his word,
To turn the fwarth, the quiv'ring load to rear,
Or ply the bufy rake, the land to clear.
Summer's light garb itfelf now cumb'rous grown,
Each his thin doublet in the fhade throws down;
Where oft the maftiff fculks with half-fhut eye,
And roufes at the ftranger paffing by;
Whilft unreftrain'd the focial converfe flows,
And every breaft Love's pow'rful impulfe knows,
And rival wits with more than ruftic grace
Confefs the prefence of a pretty face;
For, lo! encircled there, the lovely maid,
In youth's own bloom and native fmiles array'd;
Her hat awry, divefted of her gown,
Her creaking ftays of leather, ftout and brown;
Invidious barrier! why art thou fo high,
When the flight cov'ring of her neck flips by,
There half revealing to the eager fight
Her full, ripe bofom, exquifitely white?
In many a local tale of harmlefs mirth,
And many a jeft of momentary birth,
She bears a part, and as fhe ftops to fpeak,
Strokes back the ringlets from her glowing cheek.' P. 35.

It is faying much for the lines which we are about to quote, that the reader muft be pleafed, even while he may remember the incomparable poetry of Cowper. The poet has been defcribing the church.

'Round thefe lone walls affembling neighbours meet,
And tread departed friends beneath their feet:
And new-brier'd graves, that prompt the fecret figh,
Shew each the fpot where he himfelf muft lie.
Midft timely greetings village news goes round,
Of crops late fhorn, or crops that deck the ground;
Experienc'd ploughmen in the circle join;
While fturdy boys, in feats of ftrength to fhine,
With pride elate their young affociates brave
To jump from hollow-founding grave to grave;
Then clofe confulting, each his talent lends
To plan frefh fports when tedious fervice ends.
Hither at times, with cheerfulnefs of foul,
Sweet village maids from neighbouring hamlets ftroll,
That like the light-heel'd does o'er lawns that rove,
Look fhyly curious; rip'ning into love;

For love's their errand: hence the tints that glow
On either cheek, an heighten'd luſtre know:
When, conſcious of their charms, e'en age looks ſly,
And rapture beams from youth's obſervant eye.

'The pride of ſuch a party, Nature's pride,
Was lovely Poll; who innocently try'd
With hat of airy ſhape and ribbons gay,
Love to inſpire, and ſtand in Hymen's way:
But, ere her twentieth ſummer could expand,
Or youth was render'd happy with her hand,
Her mind's ſerenity was loſt and gone,
Her eye grew languid, and ſhe wept alone;
Yet cauſeleſs ſeem'd her grief; for quick reſtrain'd
Mirth follow'd loud, or indignation reign'd:
Whims wild and ſimple led her from her home,
The heath, the common, or the fields to roam:
Terror and joy alternate rul'd her hours;
Now blithe ſhe ſung, and gather'd uſeleſs flow'rs;
Now pluck'd a tender twig from every bough,
To whip the hov'ring demons from her brow.
Ill-fated maid! thy guiding ſpark is fled,
And laſting wretchedneſs waits round thy bed—
Thy bed of ſtraw! for mark, where even now
O'er their loſt child afflicted parents bow;
Their woe ſhe knows not, but perverſely coy,
Inverted cuſtoms yield her ſullen joy;
Her midnight meals in ſecrecy ſhe takes,
Low mutt'ring to the moon, that riſing breaks
Through night's dark gloom:—oh how much more forlorn
Her night, that knows of no returning dawn!—
Slow from the threſhold, once her infant ſeat,
O'er the cold earth ſhe crawls to her retreat;
Quitting the cot's warm walls in filth to lie,
Where the ſwine grunting yields up half his ſty;
The damp night air her ſhiv'ring limbs aſſails;
In dreams ſhe moans, and fancied wrongs bewails.
When morning wakes, none earlier rous'd than ſhe,
When pendent drops fall glitt'ring from the tree:
But nought her rayleſs melancholy cheers,
Or ſooths her breaſt, or ſtops her ſtreaming tears.
Her matted locks unornamented flow;
Claſping her knees, and waving to and fro;—
Her head bow'd down, her faded cheek to hide;—
A piteous mourner by the pathway ſide.
Some tufted molehill through the livelong day
She calls her throne; there weeps her life away;

And oft the gaily paſſing ſtranger ſtays
His well-tim'd ſtep, and takes a ſilent gaze,
Till ſympathetic drops unbidden ſtart,
And pangs quick ſpringing muſter round his heart;
And ſoft he treads with other gazers round,
And fain would catch her ſorrow's plaintive ſound:
One word alone is all that ſtrikes the ear,
One ſhort, pathetic, ſimple word,—"Oh dear!"
A thouſand times repeated to the wind,
That wafts the ſigh, but leaves the pang behind!
For ever of the proffer'd parley ſhy,
She hears th' unwelcome foot advancing nigh;
Nor quite unconſcious of her wretched plight,
Gives one ſad look, and hurries out of ſight.—

'Fair promis'd ſunbeams of terreſtrial bliſs,
Health's gallant hopes,—and are ye ſunk to this?
For in life's road though thorns abundant grow,
There ſtill are joys poor Poll can never know;
Joys which the gay companions of her prime
Sip, as they drift along the ſtream of time;
At eve to hear beſide their tranquil home
The lifted latch, that ſpeaks the lover come:
That love matur'd, next playful on the knee
To preſs the velvet lip of infancy;
To ſtay the tottering ſtep, the features trace:
Ineſtimable ſweets of ſocial peace!' P. 58.

One more extract muſt be offered, in juſtice to the genius and humanity of the author.

'Sweet then the ploughman's ſlumbers, hale and young,
When the laſt topic dies upon his tongue;
Sweet then the bliſs his tranſient dreams inſpire,
Till chilblains wake him, or the ſnapping fire:
He ſtarts, and ever thoughtful of his team,
Along the glitt'ring ſnow a feeble gleam
Shoots from his lantern, as he yawning goes
To add freſh comforts to their night's repoſe;
Diffuſing fragrance as their food he moves,
And pats the jolly ſides of thoſe he loves.
Thus full repleniſh'd, perfect eaſe poſſeſt,
From night till morn alternate food and reſt,
No rightful cheer withheld, no ſleep debar'd,
Their each day's labour brings its ſure reward.
Yet when from plough or lumb'ring cart ſet free,
They taſte awhile the ſweets of liberty:
E'en ſober Dobbin lifts his clumſy heels
And kicks, diſdainful of the dirty wheels;

But ſoon, his frolic ended, yields again
To trudge the road, and wear the clinking chain.

' Short-ſighted Dobbin!—thou canſt only ſee
The trivial hardſhips that encompaſs thee:
Thy chains were freedom, and thy toils repoſe,
Could the poor poſt-horſe tell thee all his woes;
Shew thee his bleeding ſhoulders, and unfold
The dreadful anguiſh he endures for gold;
Hir'd at each call of buſineſs, luſt, or rage,
That prompt the traveller on from ſtage to ſtage.
Still on his ſtrength depends their boaſted ſpeed;
For them his limbs grow weak, his bare ribs bleed;
And though he groaning quickens at command,
Their extra ſhilling in the rider's hand
Becomes his bitter ſcourge:—'tis he muſt feel
The double efforts of the laſh and ſteel;
Till when, up-hill, the deſtin'd inn he gains,
And trembling under complicated plains,
Prone from his noſtrils, darting on the ground,
His breath emitted floats in clouds around:
Drops chaſe each other down his cheſt and ſides,
And ſpatter'd mud his native colour hides:
Through his ſwoln veins the boiling torrent flows,
And every nerve a ſeparate torture knows.
His harneſs loos'd, he welcomes eager-eyed
The pail's full draught that quivers by his ſide;
And joys to ſee the well-known ſtable door,
As the ſtarv'd mariner the friendly ſhore.

' Ah, well for him if here his ſuff'rings ceas'd,
And ample hours of reſt his pains appeas'd!
But rous'd again, and ſternly bade to riſe,
And ſhake refreſhing ſlumber from his eyes,
Ere his exhauſted ſpirits can return,
Or through his frame reviving ardour burn,
Come forth he muſt, though limping, maim'd, and ſore;
He hears the whip; the chaiſe is at the door:
The collar tightens, and again he feels
His half-heal'd wounds inflam'd; again the wheels
With tireſome ſameneſs in his ears reſound,
O'er blinding duſt, or miles of flinty ground.
Thus nightly robb'd, and injur'd day by day,
His piece-meal murd'rers wear his life away.' P. 85.

After the quotations which we have given, it is ſuperfluous to praiſe this poem: it will plead its own cauſe. Knowing this, we delayed noticing the hiſtory of the author, leſt our readers might imagine that they were prejudiced in favour of

the poem by the intereſt which muſt be excited in their minds for Robert Bloomfield.

Robert was himſelf the farmer's boy whoſe occupations he has ſo well deſcribed. His father died when he was an infant, leaving a widow and ſix children. Robert was two or three months only at ſchool to learn writing, before he was ſeven years old. This was all his education. But we will proceed in the words of the preface, which is drawn up from the letters of the poet's brother, George Bloomfield, by Mr. Capel Lofft, a gentleman whoſe name the public have often ſeen connected with ſome act of benevolence or juſtice.

'When Robert was not above eleven years old, the late Mr. W. Auſtin, of Sapiſton, took him. And though it is cuſtomary for farmers to pay ſuch boys only 1s. 6d. per week, yet he generouſly took him into the houſe. This relieved his mother of any other expence than only of finding him a few things to wear: and this was more than ſhe well knew how to do.

"She wrote therefore," Mr. G. Bloomfield continues, "to me and my brother Nat (then in London) to aſſiſt her: mentioning that he, Robert, was ſo ſmall of his age that Mr. Auſtin ſaid he was not likely to be able to get his living by hard labour."

'Mr. G. Bloomfield on this informed his mother that, if ſhe would let him take the boy with him, he would take him, and teach him to make ſhoes: and Nat promiſed to clothe him. The mother, upon this offer, took coach and came to London, to Mr. G. Bloomfield, with the boy: for ſhe ſaid, ſhe never ſhould have been happy if ſhe had not put him herſelf into his hands.

"She charged me," he adds, "as I valued a mother's bleſſing, to watch over him, to ſet good examples for him, and never to forget that he had loſt his father." I religiouſly confine myſelf to Mr. G. Bloomfield's own words: and think I ſhould wrong all the parties concerned if, in mentioning this pathetic and ſucceſsful admonition, I were to uſe any other.

'Mr. G. Bloomfield then lived at Mr. Simm's, No. 7, Fiſher's-court, Bell-alley, Coleman ſtreet. "It is cuſtomary," he continues, "in ſuch houſes as are let to poor people in London, to have light garrets fit for mechanics to work in. In the garret, where we had two turn-up beds, and five of us worked, I received little Robert.

"As we were all ſingle men, lodgers at a ſhilling per week each, our beds were coarſe, and all things far from being clean and ſnug, like what Robert had left at Sapiſton. Robert was our man, to fetch all things to hand. At noon he fetched our dinners from the cook's ſhop: and any one of our fellow workmen, that wanted to have any thing fetched in, would ſend him, and aſſiſt in his work and teach him, for a recompenſe for his trouble.

"Every day when the boy from the public-houſe came for the pewter pots, and to hear what porter was wanted, he always brought

the yesterday's newspaper. The reading of the paper we had been used to take by turns; but after Robert came, he mostly read for us, because his time was of least value.

"He frequently met with words that he was unacquainted with: of this he often complained. I one day happened at a book-stall to see a small dictionary, which had been very ill used. I bought it for him for 4d. By the help of this he in little time could read and comprehend the long and beautiful speeches of Burke, Fox, or North.

"One Sunday, after an whole day's stroll in the country, we by accident went into a dissenting meeting-house in the Old Jewry, where a gentleman was lecturing. This man filled little Robert with astonishment. The house was amazingly crowded with the most genteel people; and though we were forced to stand still in the aisle, and were much pressed, yet Robert always quickened his steps to get into the town on a Sunday evening soon enough to attend this lecture.

"The preacher lived somewhere at the west end of the town, his name was Fawcet. His language," says Mr. G. Bloomfield, "was just such as the Rambler is written in; his action like a person acting a tragedy; his discourse rational, and free from the cant of methodism.

"Of him Robert learned to accent what he called hard words; and otherwise improved himself; and gained the most enlarged notions of Providence." P. iv.

The poet's corner in the London Magazine first excited his poetical ambition; and his early attempts found admission in that work. Afterwards he chanced to lodge in the next garret to a Scotchman, who was a man of good understanding, and yet a furious Calvinist. He had many books (says Mr. G. Bloomfield), *and some which he did not value*; *such as the Seasons*, *Paradise Lost*, and some novels. These books he lent to Robert, who spent all his leisure hours in reading the Seasons, which he was now capable of reading.

Mr. G. Bloomfield continues:

"When I left London he was turned of eighteen; and much of my happiness since has arisen from a constant correspondence which I have held with him.

"After I left him, he studied music, and was a good player on the violin.

"But as my brother Nat had married a Woolwich woman, it happened that Robert took a fancy to a comely young woman of that town, whose father is a boat-builder in the government yard there. His name is Church.

"Soon after he married, Robert told me, in a letter, that 'he had sold his fiddle and got a wife.' Like most poor men, he got a wife first, and had to get household stuff afterward. It took him some

years to get out of ready-furnished lodgings. At length, by hard working, &c. he acquired a bed of his own, and hired the room up one pair of stairs at 14, Bell-alley, Coleman-street. The landlord kindly gave him leave to sit and work in the light garret, two pair of stairs higher.

"In this garret, amid six or seven other workmen, his active mind employed itself in composing the Farmer's Boy." P. xii.

'Robert is a ladies' shoemaker, and works for Davies, Lombard-street. He is of a slender make; of about 5*F.* 4*I.* high; very dark complexion. His mother, who is a very religious member of the church of England, took all the pains she could in his infancy to make him pious: and as his reason expanded, his love of God and man increased with it. I never knew his fellow for mildness of temper and goodness of disposition. And since I left him, universally is he praised by those who know him best, for the best of husbands, an indulgent father, and quiet neighbour. He is about thirty-two years old, and has three children.' P. xiii.

Such was the education, and such is the situation of Robert Bloomfield. Mr. Capel Lofft has corrected the pseudography, and has sometimes altered the grammatical construction of the poem; but he has done nothing more. We will conclude with the close of this gentleman's preface.

'I have no doubt of its reception with the public: I have none of its going down to posterity with honor; which is not always the fate of productions which are popular in their day.

'Thus much I know: that the author, with a spirit amiable at all times, and which would have been revered by antiquity, seems far less interested concerning any fame or advantage he may derive from it to himself, than in the pleasure of giving a printed copy of it, as a tribute of duty and affection, to his mother; in whose pleasure, if it succeeds, his filial heart places the gratification of which it is most desirous. It is much to be a poet, such as he will be found: it is more to be such a man.' P. xv.

A Narrative of the Expedition to Holland, in the Autumn of the Year 1799. *Illustrated with a Map of North Holland, and seven Views of the principal Places occupied by the British Forces. By E. Walsh, M. D.* 4*to.* 1*l.* 1*s.* *Boards.* Robinsons. 1800.

THE sanguine expectations of the projectors of the secret expedition, the ample provisions made for its equipment, the valour of the troops and the skill of the commanders, the expected co-operation of inhabitants supposed to be panting for

an opportunity of regaining their rights, their religion, and their liberty—all these circumstances render its failure an interesting object of inquiry; and we are highly indebted to this author for collecting documents, and for arranging the materials of his history in such a manner as to please and interest the general reader. The contrast indeed is remarkable between the attempts made on the United Provinces by the French and the confederate powers. The former, by an almost miraculous concurrence of circumstances, were enabled to over-run the country, and to establish themselves in it: but the elements which had so much favoured them seem to have set themselves in array against the latter. The confederate forces that bled for the protection of the Dutch could scarcely excite a sentiment of gratitude or esteem in their minds, whilst the atheism, violence, and rapine of the French were unable to root out the attachment formed for the new republic. The unhappy predilection of the Dutch for the French is too well ascertained by the history of this expedition; for, as the invading army under the duke of York was superior to the defending army under general Brune to the moment of the retreat of the former, it is evident, that, if there had been any disposition to co-operate with us, so powerful a diversion might have been made in our favour as to render the success of our troops by no means problematical.

The grounds of the predilection of the Dutch for the French seem to our author 'unaccountable on any other score than that of commercial jealousy, and national rivalry, inasmuch as the United Provinces are indebted to England not only for their original independence and subsequent prosperity, but for her unremitting friendship and protection to preserve them in that state;' but he forgets that he had, a few pages before, ascribed the success of the Dutch in throwing off the Spanish yoke to the joint assistance of Henry the Fourth of France and queen Elizabeth of England, and that the influx of the French on the revocation of the edict of Nantes, by bringing 'property, ingenuity, and experience,' into their country, is by himself assigned as a sufficient ground for this phænomenon. It was natural in the seventeenth century, that the English and Dutch should co-operate in resisting the violent ambition of the French under Louis the Fourteenth: it was perhaps as natural, near the close of the eighteenth century, that the Dutch should think themselves more secure under the protection of France than of England. In the one case they fought in defence of their property, their religion, and their liberty, under the house of Orange which they loved; in the latter case, their affections to that house had, by various causes, been alienated; they found themselves reduced to the rank of a subordinate power; they had been hurried into a war when

it was evidently their wish to preserve a state of neutrality; and these misfortunes were ascribed by the popular party, as it was called, to the predominating influence of the British court in the cabinet of the stadtholder. These grounds of complaint were not likely to be diminished by the events of the war previous to the secret expedition. On the defeat of the combined forces in the Low Countries, and the retreat of the English army to Cruxhaven, the Dutch, incapable (even if they had been willing) to stem the torrent of success, were under the necessity of receiving the French as friends; and the consequence of this step was the loss of their finest colonies, and the seisure of their ships on the part of the English. Thus harassed on both sides, the phlegmatic Dutchman computed the loss he had sustained by both parties; and finding himself less injured by French requisitions than by English seisures, he acquiesced in the friendship of the revolutionary republicans, as the least of the two evils to which he was unavoidably exposed.

In this state of public sentiment in Holland, it was thought expedient to invade that country; and, on the thirteenth of August, the first division of the troops destined for this service, 'composed of the flower of the British army, in round numbers about fifteen thousand men,' sailed 'with the most favourable auspices' from Deal; but, encountering a storm on the second day, they did not effect their landing in the extremity of North Holland before the twenty-seventh of the same month. They were opposed by a body of only seven thousand men, who were defeated with the loss of eleven hundred men, while that on our side did not exceed five hundred men, if we except the casualties on landing the troops. This action, however irregular, was 'well contested,' and afforded a strong presage of future resistance. It was followed by the surrender of the Helder and the Dutch fleet, and by proclamations, on our part, to the Dutch to restore their ancient constitution.

'But neither the brilliant career of the British arms, nor these proclamations, had the immediate effect expected from them. The inhabitants of the part of the country in our possession displayed no cordiality in their attachment to the cause we maintained, which seemed to be the effect rather of necessity than choice, and a new feature of the Dutch character soon betrayed itself,—they proved cool and cautious in their friendship, but active and vindictive in their enmity.' P. 36.

On a ridge of sand-hills, from the twenty-seventh of August to the first of September, the invaders were exposed to all the inclemency of the weather, without any other shelter than 'could be obtained by digging trenches in the sand;' and being too weak in numbers to attempt any great enterprise, were

content to take possession of better quarters about twelve miles to the south, where, protected by dikes and entrenchments, they could wait in security for the expected reinforcements. The Dutch, recovered from their first panic, and strengthened by the arrival of some French troops, resolved upon another attack. Their whole force did not exceed twelve thousand men. With such inferiority in numbers, they ventured on an experiment which, from the strength of our positions, was baffled by little more than a third of our army, and cost the former a thousand men in killed and wounded, whilst our whole loss did not amount to more than two hundred in killed, wounded, and missing. The invading army could not, however, pursue its advantage: it remained at its post till the thirteenth of September, when the duke of York arrived with three brigades of British troops, and on the same day had the pleasure of witnessing the disembarkation of seven thousand Russians, who were soon followed by more, till the force of these auxiliaries amounted to between seventeen and eighteen thousand men. By the nineteenth the united army amounted to thirty-six thousand men; the head-quarters were at Schagenburg; and, early in the morning, the whole host was in motion 'in high health and spirits, excellently appointed, and furnished with a fine train of artillery,' to attack the enemy. It marched in four columns; but the precipitation of the Russians destroyed the advantages gained by the other columns; and 'the troops, after a dismal and harassing march, during which they were lighted by the blaze of burning villages, arrived at an early hour in the morning at the respective stations which they occupied before the battle.' The enemy's force, it is supposed, amounted to thirteen thousand French, and fifteen thousand Dutch, and their loss to three thousand prisoners, and two thousand in killed and wounded. The invaders also suffered considerably, as the British are supposed to have lost fifteen hundred, and the Russians three thousand.

The inclemency of the weather prevented farther active operations for some time; but, in the interval, our army received reinforcements of Russians and English, till it amounted by the latter end of the month 'in round numbers to about forty thousand men.' An attempt was made on the twenty-ninth to attack again; but the swampy state of the country, and a tremendous surf, rendered it expedient to defer the intended attack, which did not take place before the second of October. Our army marched, as before, in four columns; but the Russians were now in the centre, and the right wing was in motion at half past six in the morning; and 'about sunset the enemy yielded up the well-fought ground, and retired to Beverwyck.' Their force 'was computed at five and twenty thousand men, of which about fifteen thousand were

French,' and their loss 'at three thousand men.' The loss of the British 'exceeded that of any single battle in which a British army was concerned during the whole war. It amounted to nearly sixteen hundred men; and the Russians lost six hundred.'

'The result of the well-contested battle of Alkmaar,' or rather the second battle of Bergen, was the acquisition of the whole peninsula of North Holland. The head-quarters were now advanced to Alkmaar; and in the new quarters the army rested to the morning of the sixth of October, when it marched forward to dislodge the enemy from the pass of Beverwick. In fact, though the battle of Egmont was 'indecisive, the enemy fell back upon his positions in front of Beverwick,' and left the British and Russian troops to lie on 'their arms all night, occupying the ground where the action terminated.' The loss of the British in this action amounted to 'upwards of fourteen hundred' men, 'that of the Russians was between eleven and twelve hundred men:' the enemy's loss is supposed to be equal to that which was sustained on the second of October.

'The allied army now found itself in a situation so critical, that it required the greatest military talents, joined with the maturest experience, to direct its future operations.' The crisis is placed in its true colours by our author; and it appears that by the most prudent determination, on the seventh of October, 'about ten o'clock at night, the whole army was in full retreat, which, by a sudden and decided measure, was effected before the face of a most vigilant and active foe, without disorder or any immediate pursuit, and with little comparative loss.' On the ninth, the British and Russians resumed their old positions on the great dyke of the Zuyp, and the enemy re-occupied those which they had seised before the battle of Alkmaar; and, as it was necessary to defend the retreating army by a small inundation, and there was little prospect of succeeding in any farther attacks on the enemy, it was determined 'to return to England as expeditiously as possible.'

Negotiations were commenced on the fourteenth between the commanders in chief of the opposing armies: the agreement was concluded, and followed by an armistice on the eighteenth; and at the easy rate of restoring eight thousand prisoners of war, and leaving the ordnance and military stores previously mounted on batteries within the British lines, for the Batavian republic, the whole invading army was allowed to re-embark. The commander went on board on the first of November; and, by the twentieth, the whole of the forces, British and Russian, had left the Texel.

'While preparations for embarkation were actively going forward, much hospitable civility passed between the general-officers of both armies; even the men seemed to forget that they were enemies, and a salutary restraint was necessary to keep them within their respective out-posts. So much more prone is the human mind to emotions of amity than of hatred!' P. 89.

Thus ended the secret expedition. Of the conduct of the British troops engaged in it, Dr. Walsh justly remarks, that 'their intrepid valour in the field, their moderation and humanity when victorious, and their calm fortitude under adverse circumstances, must reflect a permanent lustre on the British arms, and render even misfortune respectable.' If we consider the expense of the equipment, it is rather extraordinary that the army should have encountered so many difficulties; yet

'the exterior appointments of so many troops, in such a country, during a severe campaign, were not furnished without great difficulty; and though neither expense nor exertions were wanting, the army suffered occasionally from privations of the first necessity. The want of wheel carriages, adapted to the nature of the country, was often severely felt, and would, on many pressing occasions, be irremediable, if the inland navigation did not, in some measure, supply the deficiency. No suttlers were allowed to follow the army until the close of the campaign. This, no doubt, was intended to be a salutary regulation; but, more than once, every article of consumption became so scarce, that the necessary refreshments for the sick and wounded were not to be purchased. Even fresh water began to fail at the Helder, and a contract was actually agreed upon to procure regular supplies from the Ems. Fortunately, the country was well stocked with black cattle and sheep; in consequence of which there was no want of fresh meat.' P. 91.

With the operations of the army are interwoven many excellent remarks, and descriptions of North Holland and its inhabitants; and both from the nature of the enterprise and the singularity of the circumstances attending it, this narrative from an eye-witness well qualified not only to discriminate between the leading and less important features of the expedition but to paint them with vigour and fidelity, will, we doubt not, receive the approbation of the public. We wish that among the other documents there had been inserted the accounts of the principal actions sent by the Dutch and French commanders to their respective employers, as well as the letters of the Russian generals to their emperor, that thus an impartial judgement might be formed of the whole of this extraordinary campaign: but the defect may be easily supplied in a future edition of this work, which will then be a very important acquisition to the present generation and to future historians.

Reformation-Truth Restored. Being a Reply to the Rev. Charles Daubeny's Appendix to his Guide to the Church. Demonstrating his own Inconsistency with Himself; and his great Misrepresentation of some Historic Facts. With a more particular Vindication of the pure, reformed, Episcopal Church of England, from the Charges of Mr. Daubeny, and other Doctrinal Dissenters of that Gentleman's Sect, who are fomenting Schisms and Divisions, and disseminating Errors, in the very Bosom of the Establishment. In a Series of Letters to Mr. Daubeny. By Sir Richard Hill, Bart. M.P. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Cadell *and* Davies. 1800.

THE controversy between the baronet and the divine still rages, and there is no prospect of its speedy conclusion. The divine has the advantage of the baronet in the article of discipline; but the latter presses his adversary with the *argumentum ad hominem*, and, since the want of baptism in archbishop Secker did not invalidate either his ordination or future baptisms, Sir Richard presumes that his partiality to the dissenters from the church of England may be excused. We do not allow this mode of arguing, nor can we consider any one who frequents conventicles, even if the preacher be equally learned and pious with any of our bishops, as a true son of the church. In the point of discipline, therefore, we must side with the divine against the baronet: but Sir Richard protests against such a decision.

'Agreeable to this sound reasoning, whenever Mr. Daubeny preaches the doctrine of the Guide and of the Appendix, in any church, he immediately turns that church into a dissenting meeting; and there can be no schism in departing from him; and by parity of reasoning, if the doctrines of our articles are preached even in an hovel, the preacher has a much better pretension to call himself a minister of the church universal, and even of the church of England, than a certain fellow of Winchester-college.' P. 10.

The mistake in the baronet's reasoning is a very common one. If Mr. Daubeny should preach in his pulpit what may appear false doctrine to another, he does not turn the church into a meeting of dissenters, nor is he a schismatic; for, by preaching in that pulpit, he allows the authority of the church, and seems to manifest a readiness to submit to her censures. On the other hand, when the doctrines of the church are preached in a hovel by one not authorised by, nor acknowledging the authority of, the bishop, he is (whatever his other pretensions may be) a schismatic; and all who countenance such a preacher and such a meeting are involved in the same stigma. Another mistake of the baronet is in supposing that

the church of England admits the validity of diſſenting baptiſm; for it does not allow any baptiſm but that which is performed by perſons duly ordained to this office.

On the ſubject of doctrine, Sir Richard ſeems to have the advantage. He is well read in the hiſtory of the reformation, and oppoſes with great ſtrength of argument the preſent lax mode of interpreting the thirty-nine articles. That the articles were Calviniſtical in their origin cannot be doubted; that they may be in ſome meaſure ſoftened down towards Arminianiſm, is alſo true: but the latitude taken by many divines, and the cold morality introduced into the pulpit, inſtead of the peculiar and enlivening doctrines of Chriſtianity, deſerve the chaſtening hand of the baronet's ſatire. His apoſtrophe on this occaſion merits attention.

'But truth muſt not hide her head, and be abaſhed, when ſhe is called upon to bear a teſtimony, even before the greateſt men upon earth. Therefore, come of it what will, and call it what you pleaſe, abuſe, railing, reviling, &c. &c. &c. (I know theſe are the canting terms of the day,) I do avow that there are, at this hour, many truly ſound, able, learned, exemplary, laborious miniſters in the eſtabliſhment, who have ſcarcely bread to eat; whilſt multitudes of idle, non-reſident drones and pluraliſts, are fed to the full for ſtarving the flocks committed to their charge. I appeal to no perſons, I appeal to plain facts. Is a conſcientious belief of our articles, and a life devoted to God in the converſion of ſinners, the way to preferment, either in or out of the univerſities? and whilſt men of this ſort, are looked upon in the light they are, or rather not looked upon at all, how can it be, but that the church of England muſt, by degrees, become a ponderous lump of lifeleſs formality, which will at laſt ſink under its own weight? and God only knows how ſoon this may be caſe!—If I have ſpoken plainly of the diſeaſe, it is in hopes that a ſpeedy remedy may be applied!' P. 194.

There is much harſh language on both ſides which might well be ſpared. Neither of the controverſialiſts would intentionally be guilty of hereſy or ſchiſm, but both hazard themſelves too near the edge of a precipice.

Copies of original Letters from the French Army in Egypt. Part the Third, conſiſting of thoſe Letters to the French Government, intercepted by the Britiſh Fleet in the Mediterranean, which have been publiſhed here by Authority. With an Engliſh Tranſlation. 8vo. 4s. *ſewed.* Wright. 1800.

THE intention of this publication is to paint, in the language of the editor, the perſonal character of Buonaparte. The character of the firſt general of the age is weighed by a pedantic meaſurer of ſyllables; and ſome intercepted letters

from Egypt are to delineate the conqueror of Italy, and the sovereign of France. In the introduction and notes, Buonaparte is said to be 'famous for cruelties, blasphemies, and frauds—a fugitive and a traitor—the object of the fear and hatred of mankind—one whose course has been fraud, whose business has been blood, whose element is revolution—who is to be admired in a morning for his blue coat and white pantaloons, and in the evening for his white coat and blue ones—who has spilled more blood wantonly than any commander of ancient or modern times—one of whose plans was a mixture of idiotism and phrensy, completely ridiculous, and truly worthy of the man who conceived it—who talks in a jargon that captain Bobadil would have blushed at—seems absolutely incapable of any impressions of pity or remorse—is an anomalous being, such as neither history nor fiction has yet dared to exhibit—was guilty of a base, cowardly, and malicious calumny—began with a system of fraud and hypocrisy, with which he will most assuredly end—sneaked away from his post like a midnight thief—is of a contracted and restless mind, incapable of directing any scheme of policy, yet presumptuously venturing upon all—is to be pitied and despised for sottish stupidity, whining, and hypocritical cant—is a man whose base and cowardly desertion of his army, if there be one spark of feeling, one sentiment of honour, yet left in France, will produce a cry of universal indignation and horror, and drive the idol of a fortnight from his imaginary throne.' Such is the language used towards an enemy; and, for the sake of these malignant effusions, and this contemptible trash, the intercepted letters are given to the public. We turn with disgust from the comments of the editor to the letters themselves, which were calculated to make a considerable impression on the public mind, if it had not been weakened by the injudicious attempts of the annotator to raise the feelings of his readers to the same degree of passion and spleen with which his remarks were conceived.

The letters are interesting, as they exhibit the motives of a general for quitting his army, his directions for the future conduct of that army, the state in which he left it, and the difficulties which it had to encounter from climate, from want of necessaries, from internal commotions, and the approaching force of the Ottoman empire. Buonaparte has been severely blamed for quitting his army; but we do not scruple to assert that it was the act of a great and energetic mind. To impute it to cowardice, is a mark of prejudice unworthy of notice. He who had exposed himself to so many dangers, who was then balancing between his duty to his army, and his supposed duty to his country, who would venture on the odium that might be thrown on him for quitting his post, on the dangers

of the seas covered with hostile fleets, on the probability of surmounting every difficulty, and raising himself above the factions by which France was convulsed, must possess, whatever his other faculties may be, a soul for enterprise, not surpassed by any of the heroes of antiquity. He assigns for his reasons the dangers of his country: he leaves directions for the next in command. His successor sends an account of the state of the army in Egypt, and appears to be fully sensible of the difficulties of his situation. At the same time, it is to be recollected that it is the interest of the general to paint his situation in higher colours than the case really admits, that, if he should succeed, his triumph may be greater, or, if he should fall, the disgrace of defeat may be palliated. It was the opinion of many, that the French army would be able to retain possession of Egypt, in defiance of the efforts of the Turks and their British allies: but intelligence of a contrary nature has arrived, intimating the evacuation of the contested territory, on the grant of a safe retreat to the republicans.

Upon the whole, we see no reason for making such an outcry against an expedition, which is as justifiable as the generality of expeditions undertaken by warlike powers. At any rate it can tend to no good purpose to vilify and abuse our enemies; and this mode of pamphleteering the general of the adverse party does no honour to the character of the British nation. We will not allow ourselves to attribute the notes and introduction to a person who enjoys a distinguished post under government, as they bear evident marks of having been composed in haste by one who is in the habit of dishing up such common-place materials as may serve for a temporary purpose.

The Inspector, or Select Literary Intelligence for the Vulgar, A. D. 1798, but correct A. D. 1801, the first Year of the XIXth Century. 8vo. 5s. *Boards.* Debrett. 1799.

AN emeritus professor of the university of Dublin, relinquishing his speculations on the irreducible case in algebra, is now forced on the shores of the western ocean, and employing his fine achromatic glasses in surveying the eastern hemisphere. He has by their means, he tells us, not only discovered the entire forms of the three spectres which have lately disturbed Europe—French philosophism, German illuminism, and English unitarianism; but he has discerned the spots in purer forms which are giving battle to these dreadful monsters. From his exalted station he conceives himself to possess eminent advantages, and proposes to be inspector-general of the literature, morals, and religion of Europe. In this capacity

he has given to the public the preſent work, conſiſting of two parts, written in an incorrect and deſultory manner.

As a ſpecimen of the improvements ſuggeſted by him, we will only name one, which may excite ſome ferment in Pater-noſter-row. All bookſellers and printers ſhould be examined, after the manner (we preſume) of the candidates for a fellowſhip in Dublin, as to literary and moral qualifications, and ſhould not be permitted to exerciſe their trades without a licenſe. No one could be better employed in this taſk than our author; and if he ſhould then be allowed to make an *index expurgatorius*, he might curb the licentiouſneſs of the Engliſh preſs, and teach us to read and think within ſound limits.

In the unitarian ſpectre, Mr. Belſham occupies a much greater ſpace than was apparent to our optics, and our inſpector muſt not blame his achromatics for his miſtakes in the genealogies of this ſect. Prieſtley is placed at the head; Lindſey, Evanſon, Williams, &c. are called his followers. The order, we think, ſhould be Evanſon, Lindſey, Prieſtley; and Williams does not belong to the ſociety.

Amidſt ſtrange tautology and wild effuſions, there is evidently in this work a ſpirit of religion, which we highly approve: a degree of learning is alſo viſible, which might have been introduced to great advantage. We will exhibit an inſtance of the author's beſt manner in the caſtigation which he gives to Paine, and the judicious interpretation of a difficult paſſage in the Scriptures.

'Aping his maſter, Paine, in like manner, has diſcovered that the book of Job was originally written in Greek, by ſome heathen philoſopher, of late date, and thence tranſlated into Hebrew;—from the Greek names of the conſtellations, "Pleiades, Orion and Arcturus," adopted from the Septuagint verſion, by our Engliſh tranſlation, in two remarkable paſſages of Job, ix. 9. and xxxviii. 32.—not knowing, in the extent and compaſs of his ignorance, that the original terms in Hebrew are as unlike in ſound as in ſenſe —"Aiſh" denoting Urſa Major; "Chimah," Taurus; and "Cheſil," Scorpio:—while the fourth conſtellation, "Mazaroth," left, through ignorance of its meaning, untranſlated by the Septuagint and our Engliſh tranſlation, is judiciouſly rendered by Suidas, in his ſecond ſignification of Μαζουρωθ "the Dog-ſtar" or Sirius; where the Hebrew or Egyptian termination (as in Naboth, or Thoth, Behemoth, &c.) marks his utter ignorance of the Greek tongue alſo.

'Theſe inimitable paſſages, amidſt all the clouds and darkneſs attached to patriarchal language and patriarchal aſtronomy, ſtill burſting forth to the philoſophical orientaliſt, with a radiance the moſt dazzling, and with an imagery the moſt ſublime and beautiful, and yet the moſt chaſte and ſcientifically correct—which even a Maſkelyne and a Herſchell, a De la Lande and De la Place,

might view with admiration and amazement—may thus be lefs incorrectly rendered, illustrating each other, in the most difficult and obscure parts, of the most obscure poem extant, as it is by far the most ancient—compared with which, Lycophron is plain and easy;

" How can man be justified with God!—
One of a thousand cannot answer Him—
Making Aish, Chesil and Chimah,
And the recesses of the South."

" Canst thou shut up the delightful teemings of Chimah?
Or the contractions of Chesil, canst thou open?
Canst thou draw forth Mazaroth in his season?
Or Aish and her sons canst thou guide?"

' This is the most picturesque description of the cardinal constellations, in the primitive sphere—many ages before the Argonautic expedition—(when, according to Newton's fanciful system, it was first constructed,)—and the leading qualities of the seasons over which they were supposed to preside; according to the most ancient Chaldean astronomy:—Chimah, or Taurus, denoting the expansions of the earth's bosom in spring by the sun's genial heat; Chesil, its contractions in autumn, by the cold weather, so finely denoted by the contraction of the Scorpion's claws, numbed by the commencing cold; Mazaroth, as presiding over the sultry heats of summer during " his season" of the dog-days—commencing at his heliacal rising, on the 30th of July, in the present age and climate, and lasting for forty days; and who is here represented as drawn forth from " the recesses of the south," or antarctic circle, by an almighty Orion; to face Aish, or Ursa Major, " revolving in her arctic den, and watching Orion,"—as so finely described by Homer, Iliad. xviii. 485.

Αρκτονθ' ἡν και Αμαξαν επικλησιν καλεουσιν,
Ἡ τ' αυτε στρεφεται και τ' Ωριωνα δοκευει.

" And the Bear, surnamed also the Wain (by the Egyptians),
Who is turning herself about there, and watching Orion,"—

—and his hounds Sirius and Canicula;—and, under the guidance of the same almighty Arctophylax, presiding over the opposite season of the winter's frosts.

' And the drift of the argument, in both stanzas of Job, may thus perhaps be not incorrectly summed up:

' God is all powerful——
Constantly regulating the seasons of the year:
But canst thou,—puny and presumptuous mortal!
Reverse the distinguishing characters of spring and autumn?
Or bring on the sultry heats of summer and frosts of winter—
Each in their proper season?

Well surely might the venerable but rather impatient
Patriarch exclaim, with contempt and indignation—
—"A miserable critic art thou!"

—this wooden critic—as Paine describes himself at the close of his unhallowed labours on the Old Testament, which he ignorantly confounds, like his master Voltaire, with the Bible.' P. 172.

We respect the author's erudition; and we approve his zeal for religious truth, though we wish it to be tempered with more charity. His work may amuse the leisure hours of a few of the learned; but it will not gratify readers of taste, or persons of a liberal turn of mind.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

POLITICS, &c.

Substance of the Speeches of the Right Honourable Henry Dundas, on his Majesty's Message for declining to treat at present with France; and his Objections to an Inquiry into the late Expedition to Holland. With a Preface, touching briefly on the State of Affairs. 8vo. 2s. Chapple. 1800.

THIS publication reminds us of the apartments in the capital of the northern part of this island, to which, however elegant, there is frequently no access but by a stair-case offensive to the nostrils and disgusting to the sight of the visitants. The preface is written in one of the highest paroxysms of anti-jacobinism; a mania which, like jacobinism, is often destructive to the best feelings of the human mind; and the panegyric on Mr. Dundas is laid on so thick, and with so coarse a trowel, that the writer, we should think, must be in danger of losing the expected reward of his labours. Both speeches have some degree of merit. The speaker boldly asserts his claim to the merit or demerit of refusing to negotiate with Buonaparte; and he accompanies his reasons, which are drawn from the supposed instability and iniquity of the French government, with the usual invectives against the French and their consul. On the inquiry into the failure of the expedition to Holland, he states the objects of that enterprise, which were, first, 'to rescue the United Provinces from the tyranny of the French; secondly, to add to the efficient force of this country, and to gain possession of the Dutch fleet; thirdly, to divert the enemy from his projected pursuits in general.' In two of these objects it succeeded; in the third it failed; and the gain of two out of three points proved more than sufficient to counterbalance the inconvenience arising from the loss of the third. The grounds for

expecting the co-operation of the Dutch cannot be conveniently laid before the public, as such a discovery might be the means of baffling another enterprise upon that country, and depriving us of the assistance of those who in more favourable circumstances might be ready to join us. The ill success also of the expedition, considered in itself, was in a great measure occasioned by the very extraordinary inclemency of the weather; and we had the satisfaction of knowing that nothing was omitted to produce success, which could be expected from troops of unparalleled bravery, and a commander who amply deserves every encomium bestowed upon him. Though the loss too of life had been considerable, yet there was a satisfaction in knowing that it had been exaggerated, as the whole number of the killed amounted to eight hundred and forty-six only, and only one hundred and eighty-five had died of their wounds. This is so very different from other accounts, that incredulity has scarcely given way to the high authority which made this assertion. At length the motion for inquiry was resisted, 'as it could not be productive of any actual benefit, at the same time that it might considerably clog and harass the measures of government.'

Substance of the Speech of the Hon. Thomas Erskine, in the House of Commons, on Monday, the 3d of February, 1800, on a Motion for an Address to the Throne, approving of the Refusal of Ministers to treat with the French Republic. 8vo. 1s. Debrett.

Mr. Erskine considered the house as assembled on a very momentous occasion, to decide on the conduct of ministers in a new æra of the present calamitous war. Their conduct, in refusing to negotiate with Buonaparte and returning so petulant an answer, met with his positive and unequivocal censure. He would not enter into the question of aggression, but would confine his censure of their answer to other points. It was inconsistent with his majesty's declaration in 1795; it was inconsistent with their own attempts to negotiate at Paris and at Lisle. From their 'past conduct they were bound, upon their own principles, to listen to terms of negotiation;' and it was also their interest to treat; for Buonaparte's government could be overthrown only by democratic revulsion, or the restoration of the house of Bourbon. If it should be overthrown by revulsion, new difficulties would occur, and peace could not be obtained for a long period, as there must be a state of probation for every new form of government. If the house of Bourbon should be restored, it must be kept on the throne by the force of arms against the sense of persons of property; and it was the sense of property which, in both countries, gave stability to their respective governments. As the latter event was in the highest degree improbable, and the answer returned to Buonaparte's message was likely to strengthen his interest among the French, and make the resistance to the confe-

derate powers more obſtinate, it appeared to him more deſerving of cenſure than of approbation.

Speech of the Right Hon. William Pitt, delivered in the Houſe of Commons, Monday, Feb. 3, 1800, *on a Motion for an Addreſs to the Throne, approving of the Anſwers returned to the Communications from France relative to a Negociation for Peace.* 8*vo.* 2*s.* Wright.

This ſpeech may be divided into two parts; firſt, an anſwer to the celebrated pamphlet written by Mr. Erſkine; ſecondly, a juſtification of miniſters for rejecting the late negotiatory overtures of the French. Previouſly to the entrance on the firſt part, the ſpeaker claſſes the perſons who would have favoured the reception of the overtures under one or other of theſe three heads. The firſt comprehends thoſe who do not think that the nature of the French revolution ever was or is now ſuch as to render that nation incapable of negotiating with foreign powers. The ſecond comprehends thoſe who imagine that the recent change in the adminiſtration of France gives a ſecurity for negotiation, which did not exiſt in the former ſtages of the revolution. Under the third head are ſuch as think that the preſſure at home is a ſufficient call for pacific meaſures, even if the ſecurity to be afforded by the enemy ſhould not be adequate to our wiſhes or expectations. This claſſification appears to us very incomplete; for, on many other grounds, perſons adverſe to the French revolution might be willing to liſten to the overtures. They might ſee the hopeleſsneſs of the conteſt in which we are engaged; they might think that during the negotiation France would be leſs able to recruit its ſtrength than England to retain its forces; and that, if it ſhould not ſucceed, we ſhould be no loſers by the delay; they might urge, that, ſince the preſent war has been repreſented on our part as a war of defence, there can be no grounds for continuing it when the aſſailants propoſe to lay down their arms, and to ſettle all differences by better means than the ſword. Many other reaſons might be given by thoſe who wiſh for the return of peace; but, as the claſſification itſelf is of little conſequence, it is unneceſſary to mention them.

With regard to the firſt part of the ſpeech, it will be difficult for many years to hold the balance even between Mr. Pitt and Mr. Erſkine. The origin of the war between this country and France will not perhaps be fairly diſcuſſed before the heat of party ſhall have ſubſided. Mr Pitt denies that the order for M. Chauvelin's departure was the cauſe of the war, and he repeats the trite arguments that have been frequently adduced upon this ſubject. The French aggreſſions on the rights of nations are ſummed up; and it is obſerved that France has been at war 'with all the nations of Europe, ſave two, and, if not theſe two (Sweden and Denmark), it is only becauſe, with every provocation that could juſtify defenſive war, theſe countries have hitherto acquieſced in repeated violations

of their rights rather than recur to war for their vindication.' In this ſome are of opinion that theſe two nations have diſcovered conſiderable prudence; for, to vindicate their rights, much blood and treaſure muſt have been expended in a doubtful conflict; and the inſult of a man worked up almoſt to phrenſy by domeſtic uneaſineſs may ſometimes be overlooked, when the cool deliberate malice of a neighbour, watching the moment to do an injury, requires correction. In this part ſome flippancies on Mr. Erſkine and his book, and on citizen Tippoo Saib, detract much from the merit of the diſcuſſion, which affords in other reſpects a tolerably good abridgement of the acts of the French under the revolutionary government.

Having ſhown the diſpoſition of France in its revolutionary form, the ſpeaker proceeds to conſider the nature of the change which has taken place in its government. The chief conſul of France is repreſented as unfavourable to general pacification (and a ſeparate peace we could never have conſented to make), from the declaration of his confidential friends, Berthier and Monge, to the French directory, on the ſigning of the peace at Campo Formio. 'The kingdom of Great-Britain and the French republic, it is ſaid, cannot exiſt together.' The perfidies of Buonaparte are enumerated, his cruelties recounted; no reliance is to be placed upon his character; and it is doubtful whether it is for his intereſt to make peace. He may wiſh for negotiation to paralyſe the arms of the confederacy; but, to retain his newly-uſurped power, war will be neceſſary for him, and he can govern only by the ſword. He is at the head of a military deſpotiſm, which may be ſtrong for a time, but cannot be permanent. After ſuch a deſcription of the chief conſul, we expected a perpetual declaration of war againſt him; but we find 'no ſuch thing.' The ſpeaker does not ſay, 'we will in no caſe treat with Buonaparte;' but he ſays, 'we ought to wait for experience and the evidence of facts before we are convinced that ſuch a treaty is admiſſible.' Here the miniſter lays down ſomething like a meaſure of experience. The new government of France is to ſhow ſigns of ſtability, and the allied army is to fail in exciting the ſpirit of the country to deſtroy the ſyſtem; and then miniſters will take theſe points into their conſideration. At the preſent moment, he obſerves, every thing tends the contrary way. There is, he ſays, the 'greateſt reaſon to rely on the powerful co-operation of our allies;' in which point time has proved that he was in an error. 'There are the ſtrongeſt marks of a diſpoſition in the interior of France to an active reſiſtance againſt this new tyranny;' but the genius of Buonaparte has made this aſſertion doubtful. Laſtly, 'there is every ground to believe that the continuance of the conteſt, inſtead of making our ſituation comparatively worſe, will make it comparatively better.' Of this we entertain conſiderable doubts.

The two countries are compared. France is ſaid to be impo-

verished and exhausted. Our commerce is represented as extended and flourishing, public credit improved, our permanent revenue increasing. 'The military ardour and military glory of the country, it is affirmed, have risen in the last two years to a height unexampled in any period of our history.' Here the minister forgets the purchased retreat of the finest army that was ever sent out of this country; he forgets also the enormous price of provisions; he forgets the amount of taxes; and he forgets also that France has been so often declared to be impoverished and exhausted, that few give the least credit to such assertions. The great question now occurs. Even if it be allowed that France was the aggressor, and that its government has committed all the acts with which it is charged, on what grounds can overtures be refused by those who themselves had made overtures to that government when its form was less likely to afford security than the present form, and when the persons in possession of power were not more distinguished for their virtues than the present consul. Here the answer of the minister is open and manly. He feared for the expenses of the war, for the stability of the funding system, at the time of opening the negotiations at Lisle. New and vigorous measures of finance were necessary; and such measures could not be carried into execution till the country was convinced that an honourable peace was not to be obtained. The rising spirit of the country makes him rejoice that these negotiations failed, though at the moment he 'wished for peace and sincerely laboured for peace.' The harangue is concluded with a grand accumulation of ifs, in a paragraph of two pages and a half, which might make an impression on any one who had not considered the turns in this war. We rise from the perusal of this speech rather confounded than convinced; we agree with the speaker in many points, but perceive his weakness in others; and the main argument seems to rest upon very slender support.

The Speech of the Hon. Charles James Fox. In the House of Commons, on Monday, the Third of February, 1800, *on a Motion for an Address to the Throne, approving of the Refusal of Ministers to treat with the French Republic.* 8*vo.* 1*s.* 6*d.* Debrett.

This is a firm, manly, energetic oration; and however we may differ in several opinions from the speaker, we cannot but applaud the noble sentiments with which he is inspired, and his manner of defending that side of the question which he has adopted. He continues to think, and says 'plainly and explicitly, that this country was the aggressor in the war;', and this point he maintains with his usual plausibility of reasoning. He does not defend the conduct of the French; but he proves that in all their actions they have 'done no more than servilely trace the steps of their own Louis the Fourteenth.' They have conquered and interfered with the government of other countries on Bourbon principles; and 'as we never scrupled to treat with the princes of the house of Bourbon

on account of their rapacity, their thirſt of conqueſt, their violation of treaties, their perfidy, and their reſtleſs ſpirit,' we ought not to refuſe, he contends, to treat with their republican imitators. He alſo argues that, 'when there is a queſtion of peace and war between two nations, that government feels itſelf in the wrong which refuſes to ſtate with clearneſs and preciſion what ſhe ſhould conſider as a ſatisfaction and a pledge of peace.'

On the introduction of religion into the conteſt, we agree entirely with this ſpeaker, that it 'never was, and never can be, a juſtifiable cauſe of war.' We approve his compariſon between Buonaparte and Suworoff; for ſurely no one who has heard of Praga and Iſmael, and who can juſtify the introduction of the hero of Poland at the head of his barbarous hordes into the civiliſed parts of Europe, can imagine that there is any thing in the conduct of the French, or the character of their chief, which ſhould render either unfit objects for negotiation. We fear alſo that there is too much ground for the compariſon between our mode of treating our allies and the intruſions of the French into the government of other countries. We could wiſh to ſee a refutation or a juſtification of lord Hervey's conduct towards the grand-duke of Tuſcany, or of the behaviour of Mr. Drake at Genoa; and if the ſeizure of Venice by the French is to be urged as an argument againſt our treating with them, the conduct of Auſtria in taking poſſeſſion of the object of the theft is a ſufficient reaſon for diſſolving our alliance with that power.

But the great queſtion is, how can adminiſtration defend itſelf for refuſing to negotiate with France in 1800, after the attempt made in 1796 and the renewal of the negotiation in 1797? The government under Buonaparte was not worſe than the former governments; and, as it was urged that by the former negotiations miniſters 'had given to the world what might be regarded as an unequivocal teſt of their ſincerity and diſpoſition towards peace,' Mr. Fox with ſome confidence puts the queſtion, 'Have they, or have they not, broken their own teſt?' But the event which would remove every obſtacle to negotiation is not conſidered as deſirable; for, ſays this ſpeaker, 'I cannot forget that the whole hiſtory of the century is little more than an account of the wars and the calamities ariſing from the reſtleſs ambition, the intrigues, and the perfidy, of the houſe of Bourbon. The digreſſions to the defence of the duke of Bedford from ſome trifling inſinuations, and to the publication of the intercepted letters from Egypt, are unfortunate; for, though it is generally allowed, that, 'in the introduction and notes to theſe letters, the ribaldry is ſuch that they are not ſcreened from the execration of every honourable mind even by their extreme ſtupidity,' yet in ſo high an argument the impreſſion intended to be made on the hearers was weakened by a reference to objects comparatively inſignificant.

From theſe digreſſions the ſpeaker returns to the ſubject of negotiation, and diſcuſſes with great clearneſs the motives aſſigned for

treating with the enemy in two inſtances, and for rejecting in a late inſtance the offers of negotiation: upon which head he makes this ſtriking addreſs to the feelings of the houſe.

'Sir, what is the queſtion to-night? We are called upon to ſupport miniſters in refuſing a frank, candid, and reſpectful offer of negociation, and to countenance them in continuing the war. Now, I would put the queſtion in another way. Suppoſe that miniſters had been inclined to adopt the line of conduct which they purſued in 1796 and 1797, and that to-night, inſtead of a queſtion on a war addreſs, it had been an addreſs to his majeſty to thank him for accepting the overture, and for opening a negociation to treat for peace: I aſk the gentlemen oppoſite—I appeal to the whole 558 repreſentatives of the people—to lay their hands upon their hearts, and to ſay, whether they would not have cordially voted for ſuch an addreſs? Would they, or would they not? Yes, Sir, if the addreſs had breathed a ſpirit of peace, your benches would have reſounded with rejoicings, and with praiſes of a meaſure that was likely to bring back the bleſſings of tranquillity. On the preſent occaſion, then, I aſk for the vote of no gentlemen, but of thoſe who, in the ſecret confeſſion of their conſcience, admit, at this inſtant, while they hear me, that they would have cheerfully and heartily voted with the miniſter for an addreſs directly the reverſe of this. If any ſuch gentleman ſhould vote with me, I ſhould be this night in the greateſt majority that ever I had the honour to vote with in this houſe. I do not know that the right honourable gentleman would find, even on the benches around him, a ſingle individual who would not vote with me—I am ſure he would not find many—I do not know that in this houſe I could ſingle out the individual, who would think himſelf bound by conſiſtency to vote againſt the right honourable gentleman, on an addreſs for negotiation. There may be ſome, but they are few. I do know, indeed, one moſt honourable man in another place (whoſe purity and integrity I reſpect, though I lament the opinion he has formed on this ſubject), who would think himſelf bound, from the uniform conſiſtency of his life, to vote againſt an addreſs for negotiation. Earl Fitzwilliam would, I verily believe, do ſo. He would feel himſelf bound, from the previous votes he has given, to declare his objection to all treaty: but I own I do not know more in either houſe of parliament—there may be others, but I do not know them. Why then, what is the houſe of commons come to, when, notwithſtanding their ſupport given to the right honourable gentleman in 1796 and 1797, on his entering into negotiation; notwithſtanding their inward conviction, that they would vote with him now for the ſame meaſure—what are we to think of the character of that houſe of commons, who, after ſupporting the miniſter in his negotiation for a ſolid ſyſtem of finance, can now bring themſelves to countenance his abandonment of the ground he took, and to ſupport him in refuſing all negotiation! What will be ſaid of gentlemen who ſhall vote in this way, and yet feel, in

their consciences, that they would have, with infinitely more readiness, voted the other?' P. 31.

In the remainder of the speech, the invectives against Buonaparte, his breach of oaths, his supposed want of interest to keep the peace, the manifesto of Louis the Eighteenth, and the experiment of the chief consul's future conduct, are discussed with spirit. We regret that no answer was given to the allegation of Mr. Fox respecting the part which the English are said to have taken in the atrocities committed at Naples. If the reports were false, they might have been contradicted. Upon the whole, we may recommend this speech as that of an able orator and politician, though we do not concur in all the observations of the speaker.

The Speech of the Right Hon. John, Earl of Clare, Lord High Chancellor of Ireland, in the House of Lords of Ireland, on a Motion made by him, on Monday, Feb. 10, 1800, "*That, in order to promote and secure the essential Interests of Great-Britain and Ireland, and to consolidate the Strength, Power, and Resources of the British Empire, it will be advisable to concur in such Measures as may best tend to unite the two Kingdoms, in such Manner, and on such Terms and Conditions, as may be established by Acts of the respective Parliaments of Great-Britain and Ireland.*" 8vo. 2s. 6*d*. Wright.

This speech does not throw any new light upon the very important subject which has for some time interested the public mind. A plain statement is given of the connexion between Great-Britain and Ireland; and the æra when it was firmly established is with great propriety assigned to the early part of the reign of James the First. Before that time Ireland was in a very unsettled state, divided between the colonists within the pale, and the native Irish under their chieftains, who lived in a state of feudal anarchy. In the unhappy times of Charles the First, the whole country was convulsed with civil discord; and Cromwell, transplanting a large body of the Irish to Connaught, and forbidding them to repass the river Shannon on pain of death, distributed their estates among his followers. 'A very considerable portion of the opulence and power of the kingdom of Ireland centres at this day in the descendants of his motley collection of English adventurers, independents, anabaptists, seceders, Brownists, Socinians, millenarians, and dissenters of every description.' The restoration of Charles the Second did not restore to the rightful owner his estate; for, on the act for the settlement of Ireland, 'I wish gentlemen (exclaims the chancellor) who call themselves the dignified and independent Irish nation, to know that seven millions eight hundred thousand acres of land were set out to a motley crew of English adventurers, civil and military, nearly to the total exclusion of the old inhabitants of the island.' The chancellor is very exact in his calculations; and, after stating in detail these facts to the house, he sums them up in the following extraordinary manner.

'—— the whole of your island has been confiscated, with the exception of the estates of five or six old families of English blood, some of whom had been attainted in the reign of Henry VIII. but recovered their possessions before Tyrone's rebellion, and had the good fortune to escape the pillage of the English republic inflicted by Cromwell; and no inconsiderable portion of the island has been confiscated twice, or perhaps thrice, in the course of a century. The situation, therefore, of the Irish nation at the Revolution stands unparalleled in the history of the inhabited world. If the wars of England, carried on here, from the reign of Elizabeth, had been waged against a foreign enemy, the inhabitants would have retained their possessions under the established law of civilised nations, and their country have been annexed as a province to the British empire. But the continued and persevering resistance of Ireland to the British crown during the whole of the last century, was mere rebellion, and the municipal law of England attached upon the crime. What then was the situation of Ireland at the Revolution, and what is it at this day? The whole power and property of the country has been conferred by successive monarchs of England upon an English colony, composed of three sets of English adventurers, who poured into this country at the termination of three successive rebellions.—Confiscation is their common title; and from their first settlement they have been hemmed in on every side by the old inhabitants of the island, brooding over their discontents in sullen indignation. It is painful to me to go into this detail, but we have been for twenty years in a fever of intoxication, and must be stunned into sobriety.' P. 21.

The speaker, we presume, was well acquainted with the temper and disposition of the descendants of those English adventurers, or he would scarcely have used such flowers of rhetoric to persuade them to an acquiescence in an unpalatable measure. What is the security then of these descendants? The same with that of their forefathers, 'the powerful and commanding protection of Great-Britain.' This consideration induced the peers, in 1703, to represent to queen Anne the policy of a closer union; and, in 1707, both lords and commons addressed her majesty to the same effect. The want of such an union was felt in various disputes from that period to the arming of the volunteers at Dungannon, and the supposed final adjustment of 1782. The folly of imagining that any arrangement then made could preclude a closer union between the countries is now so generally acknowledged, that a minute inquiry into the opinions of the managers on that occasion seems to be useless. The chancellor shows clearly, from the correspondence of the duke of Portland and the earl of Shelburne, that it was considered by all parties as leading only to a future 'treaty for consolidating the strength and establishing the connection of both countries on a broad and permanent basis.'

That a more intimate connection is requisite is proved from the disputes on the commercial propositions, and from the conduct of Ireland in the king's illness and the late rebellion. On each of these topics the earl displays his usual perspicuity, and then breaks out into the following exclamation.

'I will now appeal to every dispassionate man who hears me, whether I have in any thing mis-stated or exaggerated the calamitous situation of my country, or the coalition of vice and folly which has long undermined her happiness, and at this hour loudly threatens her existence. It is coldly inculcated, I know, "Let the British minister leave us to ourselves, and we are very well as we are." We are very well as we are! Gracious God! of what materials must the heart of that man be composed, who knows the state of this country, and will coldly tell us we are very well as we are? We are very well as we are! We have not three years of redemption from bankruptcy or intolerable taxation, nor one hour's security against the renewal of exterminating civil war. We are very well as we are! Look to your statute-book; session after session have you been compelled to enact laws of unexampled rigour and novelty, to repress the horrible excesses of the mass of your people; and the fury of murder, and pillage, and desolation, have so outrun all legislative exertion, that you have been at length driven to the hard necessity of breaking down the pale of the municipal law, and putting your country under the ban of military government; and in every little circle of dignity and independence, we hear whispers of discontent at the temperate discretion with which it is administered. We are very well as we are! Look at the old revolutionary government of the Irish union, and the modern revolutionary government of the Irish consulate, canvassing the dregs of that rebel democracy, for a renewal of popular ferment and outrage, to overawe the deliberations of parliament. We are very well as we are! Look to your civil and religious dissensions; look to the fury of political faction, and the torrents of human blood that stain the face of your country; and of what materials is that man composed, who will not listen with patience and good will to any proposition that can be made to him, for composing the distractions, and healing the wounds, and alleviating the miseries of this devoted nation? We are very well as we are! Look to your finances, and I repeat you have not redemption for three years from public bankruptcy, or a burden of taxation which will sink every gentleman of property in the country.' P. 74.

The prospect of public bankruptcy is now proved arithmetically. The objections to the union, that this is an improper time, that Ireland is to be extinguished, that the nobility and gentry will be driven from their country, &c. are repelled; but the earl, on this occasion, does not display any great novelty of thought or happiness of expression. We come to a more striking feature in the speech,

which, as it began with ſome bold truths to the landholders in general, now addreſſes (in terms to which the dignity of the houſe of lords in this country is not accuſtomed) one of the peers in the ſpeaker's eye.

It is well known that many members of both houſes in Ireland were unfriendly to the union. They are ſaid to have had meetings to oppoſe it; and their chief object was to 'obtain the real ſenſe of the freeholders of the kingdom on the ſubject of a legiſlative union,' and for this purpoſe to procure petitions to parliament from all parts of the realm. This meaſure, which does not appear extraordinary on this ſide of the water, is reprobated in the ſtrongeſt terms. Two noblemen are ſtigmatiſed for the part they have taken, and the funds raiſed for the common expenſes are called a conſular exchequer. The terms from Ireland had ſcarcely reached London when the clothiers in England took the alarm: they have already advertiſed a meeting, and no one thinks it extraordinary that the perſons who are moſt likely to be injured by any public meaſure ſhould take the lead in alarming others in the ſame ſituation, and procuring petitions to parliament to prevent its ſuppoſed baneful effects. In Ireland a different ſentiment, it ſhould ſeem by the following paragraph, is entertained.

'Let me aſk the two noble lords who have thus put themſelves forward, what are the excluſive pretenſions of them and their Rt. Hon. colleague to guide the public opinion?—Let me aſk them by what authority they have iſſued their letter miſſive to every corner of the kingdom, commanding the people to ſubſcribe an inſtrument fraught with foul and virulent miſrepreſentation? And let me aſk them, Is there ſalvation for this country under her preſent government and conſtitution, when men of their rank and ſituation can ſtoop to ſo ſhabby and wicked an artifice to excite popular outcry againſt the declared ſenſe of both houſes of parliament? But this is not all, if loud and confident report is to have credit, a conſular exchequer has been opened for foul and undiſguiſed bribery. I know that ſubſcriptions are openly ſolicited in the ſtreets of the metropolis to a fund for defeating the meaſure of union. I will not believe that the perſons to whom I have been obliged to allude can be privy to it. One of them, a noble earl, I ſee in his place; he is a very young man, and I call upon him as he fears to have his entry into public life marked with diſhonour; I call upon him as he fears to live with the broad mark of infamy on his forehead, and to tranſmit it indelibly to his poſterity, to ſtand up in his place, and acquit himſelf before his peers of this foul imputation. I call upon him publicly to diſavow all knowledge of the exiſtence of ſuch a fund; and if he cannot diſavow it, to ſtate explicitly any honeſt purpoſe to which it can be applied? If it can exiſt, I truſt there is ſtill ſenſe and honour left in the Iriſh nation, to cut off the corrupted ſource of theſe vile abominations.' P. 96.

The ſpeech concludes with the uſual reference to the advantages obtained by Scotland from its union, and with the propoſal of an entire and perfect union of the kingdom of Ireland with Great-Britain. The chief feature of this ſpeech is the warmth which ſeems to have agitated the ſpeaker; and when we conſider the ſtrength he had on his ſide of the queſtion, both from numbers and the weight of argument, we cannot think that ſuch warmth was neceſſary. To allay animoſity, to caſt into ſhade the parts injurious to the Iriſh character, to dwell more on the bright ſide of the queſtion, might ſeem to be the line of conduct to be expected from the rank and other advantages of the ſpeaker.

Proteſtant Aſcendancy and Catholic Emancipation reconciled by a Legiſlative Union; with a View of the Tranſactions in 1782, relative to the Independence of the Iriſh Parliament, and the preſent political State of Ireland, as dependant on the Crown, and connected with the Parliament of Great Britain. With an Appendix. 8vo. 3s. Wright. 1800.

'The irritable pride of two diſtinct kingdoms, the toutchy jealouſy of two independent parliaments, and the increaſing proſperity of the kingdom of Ireland, all tend, by the phyſical laws of gravitation, to carry her from her connexion with Great Britain, and act as an increaſing centrifugal force. To counteract this force, the influence of the crown, or attractive power, ought to reſide in Great Britain, to which ſhe is to be attracted; but if by any circumſtance the centripetal power ſhould be added to the centrifugal, ſeparation muſt be the immediate conſequence.' P. 57.

Our reader muſt not from this extract form a deciſive judgement of the whole work. It is indeed a heavy production. The chief object pointed out in the title-page forms only a ſmall part of the work; but we learn from it an important fact, that the late rebellion raged in three counties, 'not a tenth of the kingdom, in which the Roman-catholics reſident were not a fifteenth part of that perſuaſion.'

Obſervations on the Commercial Principles of the projected Union; or, a Free Examination of the Sixth Reſolution; being the only one that touches upon Commerce, and carrying a direct Commiſſion to appropriate Ireland, and for ever, as a conſuming Colony to the Britiſh Manufacturer. 8vo. 2s. Pitkeathley. 1800.

'Feeling . . . . that my awkward mode of reaſoning may not be intelligible to every reader, I ſhall bolſter it up with ſuch authority as proves, beyond a poſſibility of doubt, that ſo far from intending to communicate any real benefit, at the very inſtant of yielding what they now hold out as mere liberality, they grudged us the paltry profit that might ariſe in conſequence of exporting our coarſe linens under Iriſh bounties.' P. 61.

We feel exactly as the author did, and were happy at the conclusion to find that no one wishes more earnestly than he does for the prosperity of the empire, or is more attached to the king and our excellent constitution.

The Speech of the Hon. George Knox, Representative in Parliament for the University of Dublin, in the House of Commons, Feb. 17, 1800, *on the Subject of an Incorporate Union of Great Britain and Ireland. 8vo. 6d.* Debrett.

The most important objection of this speaker to the union is drawn from the nature of the future representation of Ireland, by which its 'diminished commons will represent but one species of property and but one description of men, and both of that class which is acknowledged to be the most inert.' He is also apprehensive that Dublin will become the seat of democracy; yet he feels the hope that they who, like him, stand equally aloof from the mal-content and the courtier, 'regardless of the driving storms and fretful billows of democracy on the one side, and of the poison which steams from the stagnant pool of despotism on the other, will with him yet take their stand upon the firm and lofty promontory of the constitution.' The promontory on which the future representatives of Ireland will stand will without doubt be very constitutional; and, like those of Scotland, they will be zealous to show their attachment to the prosperity of the empire.

The Speech (at length) of the Hon. Henry Grattan, in the Irish House of Commons, against the Union with Great Britain. 8vo. 1*s.* Jordan. 1800.

This speech threatens Ireland with ruin, if the portentous union should take place; yet, when two assumptions are removed, there seems little to excite apprehension. The first is, that the arrangement in 1782 was final; of which so much has been said, that it is not necessary to repeat this speaker's arguments, or to state our observations upon them. Whatever the arrangement might have been,—the parliament of Ireland in 1800 is as competent to make a new arrangement as that of 1782 was to make the old one. The second assumption is, that in case of union Ireland will be governed by a British parliament. We might as well say that England will be governed by an Irish parliament. The simple question is, whether the interests of both countries will be best consulted by the representatives of both, meeting in one legislature, or by two independent legislatures, or whether an Irish county will not be as much attended to as one in England or in Scotland; and we see no solid ground of argument in this speech to justify the speaker's conjectures; we mean, if the two islands should be fairly represented; and this must be determined by the articles, which seem to hold out as desirable terms to Ireland as can be expected. On the danger of the corruption of the Irish members, we cannot dissent from

Mr. Grattan; but in this they will be on a level with the Scotck and Engliſh members; and the air of St. James's will not be more pernicious to them than that of the caſtle at Dublin. Corruption has ſo tainted the country, and its powers have been ſo enlarged by a variety of concurrent cauſes within theſe few years, that no one will hazard a conjecture on the conduct of the imperial parliament, whether it will act up to the old ideas of a conſtitutional parliament, or be like a Roman ſenate, entirely ſubſervient to the views of the ſovereign. We cannot agree with this ſpeaker that the catholics will be injured by the union. In Great-Britain a general liberality on religious ſubjects prevails; a latitude of opinion is allowed; and common ſenſe and time have proved that a catholic gentleman may be as good a ſubject as a proteſtant. Hence, when the extenſion of privileges ſhall be diſcuſſed in an imperial parliament, the Iriſh catholic will be much more likely to gain a point than if he had urged his ſuit in his own country, embittered by local prejudices and rival intereſts.

A Reply to the Speech delivered in the Iriſh Houſe of Commons on Wedneſday, Jan. 15, 1800, by Mr. Grattan, on the Subject of a Legiſlative Union. By an Abſentee. 8vo. 6d. Hatchard. 1800.

Common-place abuſe! ſuch as, we preſume, an Iriſh houſe of commons would not have permitted the writer to utter in his place.

Obſervations on Dr. Duigenan's Fair Repreſentation of the preſent Political State of Ireland; particularly, with reſpect to his Strictures on a Pamphlet, entitled the Caſe of Ireland reconſidered. By Patrick Lattin, Eſq. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Debrett. 1800.

The puerile remarks of Dr. Duigenan on the danger to be apprehended from certain tenets of the catholics are refuted with ſome degree of prolixity, but with great ſtrength of argument and hiſtorical evidence. The ſuppoſed intolerance of the catholics, in conſigning to perdition ſuch as are not of their creed, is contraſted with the ſimilar opinion of the church of England and other religious communities; and the damnatory clauſe of St. Athanaſius, which is equally maintained by the churches of England and Rome, is produced as an argument that one is as blameable as the other in the article of intolerance. The abſurdity of Dr. Duigenan's poſitions is farther pointed out by our uniting with the forces of the catholic, Greek, and Mohammedan churches, by taking the word of theſe ſectaries in other countries, while he ſuppoſes that the Iriſh catholic would not keep faith with the proteſtant. The real fact is, that in the common affairs of life a religious creed is not of the conſequence which is generally attributed to it. An Iriſh catholic and an Iriſh proteſtant will go to their reſpective churches in the morning, and conſign to perdition thoſe of a different opinion from themſelves; but in the afternoon they will ſpend their time cheerfully together, for-

get their religious differences, and be attentive only to the duties of social intercourse. It is time to forget the follies of our ancestors, their persecuting spirit, and their burning of witches. The late Irish rebellion was not a popish one: the chief leaders were protestants; and religion had little concern with it: the head of the catholic church in Ireland even fulminated his excommunications with great liberality against the rebels.

RELIGION.

Diatessaron: sive integra Historia Domini Græce, ex IV. Evangeliis inter se collatis ipsisque Evangelitarum Verbis aptè et ordinatè Dispositis confecta. Subjungitur Evangeliorum Harmonia brevis. Edidit J. White, S. T. P. &c. 8vo. 4s. 6d. *Boards.* 1800.

The complete History of our Lord in Greek, with a Harmony of the four Gospels.

The name of this work is taken from a similar one applied in the early ages of the Christian church to a harmony of the four gospels. This is also a harmony of the four gospels; and it is drawn up with great judgement. The author intended it for the students of the universities; but we would rather extend its advantage, and should be happy to see it introduced into our schools. At present, it is customary to put the Greek Testament into the hands of boys on their initiation in the Greek language; and their books are worn out long before they can read the epistles either with ease or advantage. By a substitution of this work for the Greek Testament, they will have all the advantages which they derived from the complete volume, besides a connected view of our Saviour's life, which, by making in early years a due impression on their memory, may afterwards excite a greater attention to sacred study. In this harmony, Dr. White, with great reason, follows Dr. Newcome, the much-lamented archbishop of Armagh. He assigns three years and a half for the duration of our Saviour's ministry, who, in this period, celebrated three passovers completely, and, after eating the paschal supper on the fourth, was crucified. The work is divided into seven parts. In the first is contained the evangelical history of events that took place before our Saviour was thirty years old. The second comprehends the baptism, the temptation, and the marriage at Cana. The third commences with the first passover celebrated by our Saviour after his baptism, and terminates with the healing of the paralytic, and the call of Matthew at Capernaum. The fourth begins with the second passover, contains the sermon in the mount, and ends with the secession of many disciples at Capernaum, and our Lord's prognostication of the traitorous disposition of the twelve who remained with him. The fifth part opens with the conversation between our Saviour and the Pharisees on the superstitious baptisms of their utensils, and ends

with the detested agreement between Judas and the priests. The sixth division contains the history of part of three days, part of the day on which our Saviour ate the paschal lamb, the following day on which he was crucified, part of the next day during which he remained in the tomb, and on the evening of which the women purchased and prepared the necessary articles for embalming his body. The seventh part gives an account of forty days, from the morning on which our Redeemer rose from the dead to the day of Pentecost. Each part is divided into paragraphs with a short Latin superscription of its contents; and in the margin on one side is inscribed the time, and on the other the place, corresponding with the transaction recorded. From the excellence of the type, and the arrangement of the work, we flatter ourselves that this harmony will find its way into our schools, and thus gratify the laudable ambition of the editor, whose labours have been employed with no less honour to himself than utility to the public.

The Principles of Roman-Catholics and Unitarians contrasted. A Sermon, written with Reference to the Charges brought against those who maintain the Doctrine of the Divine Unity in the strictest Sense, by Dr. Horsley. Preached on Tuesday, Nov. 5, 1799, to a Congregation of Protestant Dissenters, in St. Saviourgate, York, and published at the Request of the Audience, by Charles Wellbeloved. 8vo. *2s.* Johnson. 1800.

The subject of this discourse arose from an unguarded expression of a prelate, which might rather have been suffered to drop into oblivion than to occupy the thoughts of a religious congregation. The comparison of any two classes of Christians can be attended with little advantage, whilst we have the sure word of God, to which test all our opinions and practices should be brought. Whether the unitarians or the catholics are the nearest to the church of England, it is not easy, in so small a compass, to determine; and, if it should appear that the churches of England and Rome could unite, this is an inferior subject of concern to the member of any other community, whose employment ought to be to examine the purity of his own faith, or, if he should scrutinise that of others, to show only how far they have deviated in his opinion from the word of God. The unitarians have assumed to themselves a peculiar name, grounded on their peculiar apprehensions of God: they confine the godhead to one person, and in this head they are farther removed from the church of England than the catholic. The catholic and the unitarian agree that the church and state are perfectly distinct from each other: the church of England allows supremacy in all ecclesiastical concerns to the king. On the seventeenth article it is difficult to draw the comparison, since so great a difference now prevails among the clergy in the interpretation of it; and, as was said of Locke, many persons of high authority seem to be sailing with a side wind to Racovia. The quotations from

the Elements of Theology, lately publiſhed by the biſhop of Lincoln, aſſuredly juſtify the preacher in part of his diſcourſe; and, if one biſhop poſſeſſes ſo much candour and liberality (according to the now commonly received notion of theſe terms), ſome allowance may be made for the intemperate language of the other biſhop; and, on balancing the works of the two prelates, the unitarians will probably find very little reaſon to complain. The defence however of the unitarians is well penned. There is a becoming ſpirit in vindicating their peculiar opinions, as well as a ſufficient degree of diffidence and humility in ſpeaking of themſelves; and the exhortations to a purer mode of conduct agreeably to their doctrine entitle the preacher to great reſpect. He muſt not be ſurpriſed that we do not accede to his vindication of the term rational Chriſtians; for let him explain it as he pleaſes, it implies either that all other Chriſtians are irrational, which is offenſive, or that ſome are guided by reaſon inſtead of faith, which is not ſcriptural. The denomination at any rate is conceited, and, like the term evangelical, aſſumed by another claſs of Chriſtians, has a tendency to excite arrogance and preſumption on the one hand, and on the other diſguſt and contempt.

A Diſcourſe, preached at the Pariſh-Church of Manaccan, on Sunday, Auguſt 27th, 1797; in conſequence of two Melancholy Events. By the Rev. Richard Polwhele. 8vo. 1*s.* Cadell *and* Davies.

From a thunder-ſtorm and a murder in his pariſh, the preacher takes the opportunity of ſuggeſting ſome uſeful reflexions to his hearers; but it was ſcarcely neceſſary to inform the biſhop, in a particular dedication, of his mode of teaching his flock; or to ſay, ‘I acquieſce not in the poor reflexion that I have already compoſed a ſufficient number of diſcourſes for all future purpoſes; but ſeiſe every occaſion of ſpeaking from the pulpit on ſome new object.’ This mode of ſelf-commendation may excite jealouſy among his brethren.

Daubeniſm confuted, and Martin Luther vindicated. With further Remarks on the falſe Quotations adduced by the Reverend Charles Daubeny, Preſbyter of the Church of England, and Fellow of Wincheſter-College, in his late Publications. Intended as a Supplement to Reformation-Truth reſtored. In a Letter to Mr. Daubeny. By Sir Richard Hill, Bart. M. P. 8vo. 1*s.* Cadell *and* Davies. 1800.

Sir R. Hill has invented a new *iſm*, with which he ſeems to be well pleaſed; but, as he throws no new light on the controverſy, and perſiſts in his error of vindicating ſchiſmatical baptiſm, we cannot flatter him with the title, which he ſeems with ſuch confidence to aſſume to himſelf, of a true friend and ſon of the church.

LAW.

The Proceedings at large on the Trial of an Action brought by Mr. John Mackell, of Park-Lane, Smith; against Mr. John Hanson, of Bruton Street, Smith, and furnishing Ironmonger, to the King. For a supposed Libel on the Plaintiff, in a Pamphlet published by the Defendant, relative to the Prices charged by Mr. Mackell, for the Iron Railing made by him, for inclosing Gardens in the Green-Park. Before the Rt. Hon. Lloyd, Lord Kenyon, and a Special Jury, at Guildhall, London, on Saturday, the 29th Day of June, 1799. Taken in Short Hand, by Joseph Gurney. 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Wright. 1799.

The defendant's character is fully vindicated by the issue of this trial; and in publishing the proceedings he has performed a service to the public and to himself. The railing in the green-park, which separates the private gardens from the park, was performed by the plaintiff; but his employers conceived the charges to be exorbitant, and the defendant was of the same opinion. In consequence of expressing that opinion, the latter was prosecuted for a supposed libel, and this prosecution brought before the court architects, surveyors, master and working smiths; and the plaintiff was non-suited. We will transcribe a remark from the judge which may give the readers a just idea of the evidence.

'*Lord Kenyon.* I should have remarked, upon some of the evidence that has been given in the cause,—I think it is very scandalous.—How, in God's name, are mankind deluded, when the more the person they employ as their surveyor cheats his employer, the more he enhances his own profits! It was a very sensible observation that was made by one of the gentlemen of the jury, that the more exorbitant the charge is which the surveyor allows, the more money he puts into his own pocket.' P. 162.

Not being accustomed to attend our courts of law, we were surprised at the coarseness of the language as well as the vulgarity of the jokes put into the mouths of the pleaders. One argument used in the defence ends with a remark which we cannot permit to pass without notice. 'It is the duty of every tradesman to have but one mode of charging. He ought not to charge more to a peer than a cobler.' This would be right, if peers were as punctual in their payments as coblers; but, if the former take very long credit and the latter pay ready money, common sense points out that a difference out to be made. The defendant, with a due sense of his merits in his profession, has given a representation of the gates which he erected at the entrance of the green-park, Piccadilly. We do not think that he will lose by the attack upon his character: it will probably be the means of recommending him to greater practice. Men of fortune, who are going to engage in iron work, will do well

to read this trial before they make the final agreement with their ſmith; and, from this account, they will underſtand the nature of the confidence which they are to repoſe in a ſurveyor.

An Abridgment of the modern Determinations in the Courts of Law and Equity: being a Supplement to Viner's Abridgment. By ſeveral Gentlemen in the reſpective Branches of the Law. Vol. I. and II. 8vo. 1l. 8s. Boards. Robinſons. 1799.

The eſtabliſhed character and authority of Viner's Abridgement render it an eſſential part of the library of every practiſing lawyer. It was intended that this ſupplement ſhould form, in conjunction with that Abridgement, a complete body of judicial deciſions, comprehending the caſes determined ſince the publication of Viner's original work. Of the two volumes now preſented to the public the firſt contains the following advertiſement.

'In purſuance of the undertaking of compiling a Supplement to Mr. Viner's Abridgment, and of the plan propoſed on occaſion of the late republication of that work, engagements have ſome time ſince been entered into with ſeveral gentlemen of experience and approved ability in the reſpective branches of the profeſſion, as the obvious means of effecting that purpoſe in the moſt ſpeedy and comprehenſive manner. Several unforeſeen circumſtances have hitherto retarded the complete execution of that object; but from the preſent ſtate of forwardneſs of the remaining materials, and from the operation of further arrangements which are now adopted to prevent delay, the proprietors on the preſent occaſion of the publication of the two firſt volumes of the work, feel themſelves warranted in promiſing to the public, and to the purchaſers of the new edition of Viner's Abridgment in particular, a regular and expeditious publication of the remainder of the work, which they truſt will be found to be executed in a manner to claim general approbation and encouragement.' P. iii.

The volumes before us form a ſpecimen of judicious and accurate abridgement that will induce the members of the profeſſion to wiſh for the early completion of the work. We think that ſome intimation ought to have been given by the publiſhers of its probable extent.

Reports of Caſes argued and determined in the High Court of Admiralty; commencing with the Judgments of the Right Hon. Sir William Scott, Michaelmas Term, 1798. By Chr. Robinſon, LL. D. Advocate. Volume the Firſt. Part I. 8vo. 5s. ſewed. Butterworth. 1799.

This is the firſt part of an intended ſeries of caſes, adjudged in a court which now abounds with buſineſs. Thirty-three caſes are here reported, ſome of which are of conſiderable importance. The

ſtatements appear to be correct; and the abilities and reputation of ſir William Scott confer celebrity on the publication.

MEDICINE, &c.

An Eſſay on the Medical Properties of the Digitalis Purpurea, or Fox-glove, by John Ferriar, M. D. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell *and* Davies.

On the uſe of fox-glove, practitioners greatly differ. While all conſider it as not only an active but a dangerous medicine, the more timid forego the advantages expected, from the dread of its injurious powers. We own ourſelves in part of this claſs; and, though we employ it, fear mingles with hope in the progreſs, and we dearly earn the credit we may acquire by ſucceſs, from apprehenſion of failure. It has certainly ſucceeded with us in dropſies of the worſt kind; but, in the other complaints for which it has been recommended, we have almoſt uniformly had occaſion to regret its failure. Dr. Ferriar directs its uſe more rationally and ſatisfactorily than his predeceſſors, and ſeems to ſpeak of it, though perhaps too warmly, with judgement and propriety. Two remarks we ought particularly to notice: the one, that the effects are very different in different conſtitutions, ſo that the ſmalleſt doſe ſhould be firſt cautiouſly tried; the other, that, even where it ſeems to ſucceed, the effects muſt be *hourly* watched, to prevent their going too far. We know not that we have in any caſe ſeen it materially beneficial, without affecting, with unpleaſant feelings, both the head and ſtomach.

Dr. Ferriar properly diſtinguiſhes its narcotic from its diuretic powers, thinking that theſe may operate together or ſeparately, and propoſes to join with half a grain of digitalis a grain of calomel, and eight grains of Dover's powder. In hæmorrhages, dropſy, and phthiſis, it has been already recommended. Dr. Ferriar adds to the liſt chronic coughs, ſpaſmodic aſthma, palpitations of the heart, not depending on ſimple debility, and perhaps croup. As a lotion it ſeems to have ſucceeded in painful herpetic affections, and is likely to be uſeful in anthrax and gangrene from irritability.

Remarks on Mr. John Bell's Anatomy of the Heart and Arteries. By Jonathan Dawplucker, Eſq. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Robinſons. 1799.

We were highly pleaſed with Mr. John Bell's firſt publication on the bones, reviewed in our XIIth Vol. New Arr.; but his ſecond work on the arteries (Vol. XXII. New Arr.) ſeemed of a very inferior caſt. Our lively critic, Jonathan *Daw-plucker*, has ſelected the latter work as the object of his ſeverity, and uſes the laſh with little mercy, ſharpening the pain by the moſt provoking ſneers. He has ſeiſed ſome very exceptionable parts; and the new logic diſplayed in the treatiſe, which, from the inventor, he ſtyles

John-Bell-ation, is deſcribed in a manner ſo truly humorous, as to excite frequent laughter. Mr. Bell has, we apprehend, replied with equal humour and ſeverity; but we have not yet met with this reply. On the whole, we cannot approve this method of wantonly ſporting with reputations; errors may be reprehended, without wounding the feelings; but a reviewer muſt be better pleaſed with the lively raillery of theſe combatants, than with the more cool ſeverity of a late conteſt.

A ſhort Account of the Infectious Malignant Fever, as it appeared at Uxbridge, and its Vicinity, in the Summer and Autumn of the Year 1799; with a Detail of the good Effects of Yeaſt, and Vital Air, in the different Stages of that Diſorder. By a Medical Practitioner. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cox. 1799.

The fever was produced by miaſmata, from the neighbouring marſhes, and relieved by the common methods. It was only peculiar from the abſence of the inflammatory ſymptoms which often precede even the worſt fevers. The uſe of yeaſt in typhus is not generally known; but it appears to be an uſeful antiputreſcent. The vital air with which the room was filled was procured from nitre. On the whole, the deſcription is clear and judicious; and the author is apparently a well-informed and able practitioner.

Plain and uſeful Inſtructions for the Relief and Cure of Ruptures: ſhewing their general Cauſe and dangerous Conſequences when neglected or badly treated: wherein is pointed out the many Impoſitions the afflicted are liable to; in ten Particulars: with the Author's Improvements and Inventions on Elaſtic Truſſes, &c. Alſo Advice to Parents who have weak, ricketty, crooked, and deformed Children. An Addreſs to Medical Gentlemen in the Country, Army and Navy Surgeons; alſo uſeful Directions for Perſons at a Diſtance to meaſure and apply Truſſes, and other Bandages. By J. Edy, M. S. D. Illuſtrated with Engravings of the ſeveral Inſtruments invented, made, and improved by him, for the various Deformities and Infirmities of the Human Body. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Symonds. 1800.

This author is not unwilling to be the herald of his own fame; and his ſelf-applauſe is only equaled by his abuſe of all who pretend to cure ruptures, except himſelf. His machines, however, appear to be ingeniouſly contrived, though, from what we have ſeen of their uſe, they are by no means ſo certainly effectual as he repreſents them.

EDUCATION.

Hebrew made eaſy; or a ſhort and plain Introduction to the ſacred Hebrew Language, compiled in a new Method, with Extracts from the beſt Hebrew Grammars. By the Rev. Richard Caddick, of Chriſt-Church, Oxford. 8vo. 1s. Symonds. 1799.

The author of this firſt number of a Hebrew grammar ſeems unreaſonably deſirous of rendering his grammar conformable to the

Latin. His nouns are declined, like the Latin, with ſix caſes, though the Hebrew is in this reſpect the moſt ſimple of all languages, admitting no change in its nouns, except to diſtinguiſh the plural from the ſingular, and the feminine from the maſculine. Hence the rabbinical *ſhel* is put as a mark of the Hebrew genitive, though it is equally applicable to the dative; and the article *ha* or *the* is alſo appropriated to the genitive without reaſon. To a perſon not acquainted with the Latin, the learning of theſe caſes is very unneceſſary labour; and the inſtances of declenſion are ſuperfluous. As the grammar is written in Engliſh, it would have been much better throughout to adapt it to the Engliſh ſcholar, to avoid the term *in regimine*, and to follow rather the ſyſtem of the Hebrew than the Latino-Hebrew grammarians. By following the latter, our author makes three tenſes, though they do not exceed two in Hebrew. He alſo adopts their mode of illuſtration in other points. With regard to the pronunciation of the letters, the *tſeri*, which is pronounced by the Hebrews like *a* in *care*, is repreſented by him as reſembling, in ſound, the diphthong *ea* in *heal*. The long *hirec* we are directed to pronounce like *i* in *while*, inſtead of *ee* in *heel*, and the *holem* like *o* in *now*, inſtead of *o* in *bone*. The *ain* is properly referred to *gn* or *ng*, in *ſong;* but, when it occurs in the middle of a word, it loſes with this writer its appropriate ſound, and becomes a ſimple vowel. We have pointed out theſe defects in the firſt number, that ſimilar errors may be avoided in future; and, as we wiſh to encourage every attempt to facilitate the ſtudy of the Scriptures, we ſhall be happy in accompanying this author in his progreſs, and contributing to render his work uſeful to the Engliſh ſcholar.

A compendious Hebrew Grammar, exhibiting at one View upwards of two Hundred of the moſt eſſential Rules; illuſtrated with accurate Tables, in order to facilitate the Study of the ſacred Language. By S. Lyon, Teacher of Hebrew to the Univerſity of Cambridge.

The grammar of the Hebrew language is here exhibited on a large ſheet. It does great honour to the author, and will prove very uſeful to the learner. From this produce of the univerſity preſs, we are encouraged to hope that the Hebrew language is cultivated with ſome ardour at Cambridge. The ſtudents have an advantage which we had not in our times, that of an excellent teacher; and ſurely there muſt be ſtrong inducements to the ſtudy of this language in a place where the greater part of the ſtudents profeſs to devote themſelves to religious inſtruction; a taſk which they cannot well perform without ſome proficiency in the Hebrew. We may add, that this grammar will ſhow with what comparative facility the language may be learned.

A complete Introduction to the Knowledge of the French Language; containing the Subſtance of the moſt approved Grammars; ſuch as Chambaud, Salmon, Porney, Perrin, Reſtaut, Wanoſtrocht, Wailey, Abbé de Levizac, &c. in which their different Rules and Obſervations are ſelected and compreſſed within a ſmaller Compaſs than in any Work of a ſimilar Nature. Vol. I. 12mo. 2s. Johnſon. 1799.

Some of Mr. Crabb's critical remarks on former French grammars are judicious; but, like many other compilers, he found it more eaſy to criticiſe than improve the works of his predeceſſors.

Abrégé de l'Hiſtoire de la Bible; deſtiné à l'Avancement du Chriſtianiſme: où l'on fait voir la Liaiſon de l'Hiſtoire ſacrée et prophane; tiré des Ecrits des Hiſtoriens, des Théologiens, et des Commentateurs, les plus célèbres. Traduit de l'Anglois, mais ſur un Plan différent de l'Original. Imprimé pour la Traductrice. 8vo. Wilkie. 1799.

Abridgement of the Hiſtory of the Bible: in which is diſplayed the Connexion between ſacred and profane Hiſtory; tranſlated from the Engliſh.

This is a very plain account of the hiſtory of the Old and New Teſtament, which may be with great advantage put into the hands of young perſons who are learning the French language. A portion of it may ſerve as an uſeful taſk in ſchools for the Sundays, as it will combine ſcriptural information and proficiency in literary ſtudies.

POETRY.

The Pariſh Prieſt: a Poem. 4to. 5s. *Boards.* Robinſons. 1800.

This work is a free tranſlation of a Latin poem, entitled Sacerdos Parœcialis Ruſticus, written by the reverend John Burton, and printed in 1757. It traces the pariſh prieſt through all his duties, to the hour of death, when he expects the reward promiſed for them. Too large a portion of this poem is employed in deſcribing the Liturgy; and it was an ill-judged attempt of the Engliſh writer to paraphraſe into verſe the unimprovable Lord's Prayer. We extract this part with the preceding lines.

'Parent of all things! from whoſe word began
The heav'ns, and earth, with all the race of man;
Thou from the firſt creation didſt command
That every ſeventh day ſhould ſacred ſtand
To thee devoted—joyful to obey,
And give due honour to the welcome day,
Behold the country-folks with ſerious care,
In their beſt habits clad, to church repair.
There, in the midſt, with mild and placid mien,
The much-lov'd venerable prieſt is ſeen;

The band, the beaver, and the flowing gown
Diſtinguiſh him, and as he walks, each clown
And ruſtic maiden, pay, with rev'rence low,
The modeſt curteſy, or unpoliſh'd bow.
The porch he enters, with a murm'ring ſound,
Th' attentive congregation riſes round;
E'en the rough 'ſquire, accuſtom'd to deſpiſe
His humble neighbours, yet, behold him riſe
His pious miniſter's approach to greet,
Nor till he paſſes re-aſſumes his ſeat;
The ſhrill-ton'd bell for worſhip bids prepare,
Admoniſhing the ear and mind to pray'r;
The ſurplice round him hangs with decent grace,
And to the deſk he walks with ſolemn pace.
Now, lifting up to heav'n his eyes and hands,
In ſilent eloquence awhile he ſtands;
His voice almoſt inſpir'd attention wins,
When he the ſacred Liturgy begins.
 ' Whoe'er thou art within theſe hallow'd walls,
Reflect that God himſelf upon thee calls;
Be ſerious now, ſhake off each earthly care,
An off'ring worthy of thy God prepare;
Each vice abandon, every ſin confeſs,
Low on thy knees repentant ſhame expreſs;
So ſhalt thou ſoon throw off the galling load,
And taſte the boundleſs mercy of thy God.
 ' Hark! the glad ſound of peace ſalutes thine ear,
And bids the guilty ſinner ceaſe to fear.
 ' O come all ye whoſe grateful hearts can feel,
O come with ſouls inflam'd by holy zeal;
Your God with filial confidence addreſs,
And in your Saviour's words your pray'r expreſs.
 " God of the Univerſe! Who yet doſt deign
To be the friend, and father of mankind,
On thee we call—Thy glorious kingdom riſe
Triumphant o'er its foes—And let thy will
On earth controul us, as in heav'n it rules
The bleſſed angels which ſurround thy throne.
Of food and raiment to our wants ſupply
A mod'rate portion, not to pamper pride,
Or nouriſh folly, but to give the means
Of eaſe and comfort. Pardon, righteous Judge,
Our many ſins; thy mercy only flows
To them whoſe hearts are merciful, do thou
Forgive our treſpaſſes as we forgive
All who to us have ever giv'n offence.
Pity our weakneſs; guard us from the pow'r
Of all temptations; and from wicked men,

And evil ſpirits, keep thy ſervants ſafe.
Hear us, O Lord! theſe bleſſings at thy hand
We humbly beg, becauſe to thee belong
Eternal Glory, Majeſty, and Pow'r." P. 8.

The Summer's Eve; a Poem. By John Bidlake, A. B. &c. 8vo. 4s. *Boards.* Murray *and* Highley. 1800.

This is a deſultory poem, for which many titles as proper as the Summer's Eve might be ſuggeſted. Mr. Bidlake's poetry is marked by no peculiarity; the lines flow eaſily, and the tenor is unexceptionable. We find no paſſage of prominent excellence; the following may be conſidered as a fair ſpecimen of the whole volume.

'In poets' fancy-dreams the rural bow'r
Is void of care, and bleſt each rural hour;
They boaſt there plenty ever dwells, and there
Each Strephon conſtant, and each Phillis fair;
And if perchance with love, their happy lot
Should fix them in ſome ſmall ſequeſter'd cot,
Be ſure they feed on joys that ne'er decline,
They drink love's nectar, and on raptures dine.
But ah! where'er poor man ſhall hide his head,
Faſt on his ſteps will certain Miſery tread;
With giant pace his weary paths invade,
O'er opening bliſs diffuſing nights of ſhade.
'See yonder hovel! mark the tottering roof!
Againſt no angry pelting tempeſt proof:
See through the broken pane, with viſit rude,
Each wind familiarly dares intrude!
While hourly trembling in the crumbling wall,
Suſpenſive danger threats its inſtant fall.
Within the ſqualid family complain
Of lingering want and ever-during pain:
There to their rugged beds the hungry creep,
And try to loſe their griefs in friendly ſleep:
There, ſad companions! dwell lean waſting Care,
Chill Penury, and hopeleſs, fix'd Deſpair.
Yet there ſome ſolitary joys are found,
With friendly balm to heal the gnawing wound.
There love, not frighted from the ſooty cell,
With wretchedneſs is ſtill content to dwell;
Life's Charity, that ſmooths the wrinkled brow,
And gilds the gloom of all our pains below.
E'en Friendſhip there will not diſdain to reſt,
Nor Sleep, who loves to doze on Labour's breaſt.
See o'er her ſleeping babe the mother bends,
The cradle rocks, and all its ſlumbers tends.
Ah! ſee how anxious love and tender fear
Faſt from her lids diſtil the trembling tear;

Affection's tears, more worth than gems can own
That beauty deck, or glitter in a crown.
Thou cradled babe! how does my bosom beat,
To think what ills thy future paths await:
Pride on thy humble birth shall sternly frown,
And dark Oppression claim thee for his own,
And thou adversity e'er doom'd to taste,
A spring bud struggling in the wildest waste.
Yet one hope cheers; if Misery frown around,
Yet still with tender Care thy birth is crown'd:
Yet he who dooms to thorny paths thy birth
Shall yet give comfort on this dreary earth.
Amid this world of woe the gilded ray
Of cheerful Hope illumes the dreariest way:
The officious deeds of tender duty give
A cordial balm to keep that hope alive.
Wealth may buy slaves, but wealth cannot procure
What must be e'er unbought, if it be pure;
And though the sharpest pangs of ill we prove,
Life's bitter draught is sweet to all through love.' P. 38.

Mr. Bidlake frequently uses the Alexandrine in the first line of a couplet, and once he has a line of eight syllables. If these varieties are unpleasant, it is perhaps only because they are unexpected. We have only to caution this author against awkward personifications; such as,

'A thin, pellucid veil, while *Saffron* spreads.' P. 1.

'Outstretch'd *Attention* stills the whispering ground.' P. 3.

' ardent Colour glows'—

Cultivation, Sound, Gloom, &c. Mr. Bidlake should read the Sonnet upon Personification in the Annual Anthology.

NOVELS, &c.

The Story of Al-Raoui, a Tale from the Arabic. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Geisweiler.

It appears from the preface to this interesting little story, that the translation was executed above sixteen years ago, and still would have remained in oblivion, had not the notices of an Arabic manuscript belonging to captain Scott, which occur in Sir William Ouseley's Oriental Collections, suggested the persuasion of the identity of this tale with one contained in that manuscript.

The orientalist will be pleased to learn that its identity and authenticity are now confirmed by the publication of the original Arabic, with a literal translation by captain Scott, in the second volume of the Oriental Collections.

To give even the ſlighteſt outlines of ſo ſhort a ſtory would anticipate the reader's pleaſure: we ſhall therefore content ourſelves with obſerving that the ingenious tranſlator, although he uſes the words *Al-Raoui* as a proper name, was not ignorant (as appears from the dedication) of their true meaning. *Al* is merely the Arabic article, and *Raoui* ſignifies a narrator or ſtory-teller.

Twenty pages of this little volume are filled with an accurate and ſpirited German tranſlation of the tale by M. Geiſweiler; and the laſt thirteen pages contain ſome Engliſh poems, which the author annexes for the ſake of correcting ſeveral typographical errors that had disfigured them in a former edition.

Theſe verſes poſſeſs conſiderable merit, and ſufficiently evince the poetical talents of the author, who is, we underſtand, a clergyman diſtinguiſhed by profound learning, acuteneſs in criticiſm, and ingenuity in antiquarian reſearches.

The Mad Man of the Mountain: a Tale. By Henry Summerſett, Author of Probable Incidents, &c. 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. ſewed. Lane. 1799.

Roncorone, a ſuppoſed Venetian, recounts in theſe volumes his adventures and misfortunes. He becomes enamoured of Roſolie, an amiable Florentine; but, as his father had been at variance with Salvini, the guardian of the young lady, he meets with ſome obſtructions to his eager wiſhes. Roſolie is carried off by Salvini, whom, however, ſhe firmly refuſes to marry. Having conceived a ſtrong affection for Roncorone, ſhe reſolves to take the firſt opportunity of eſcaping from her confinement. In the mean time, her lover, having procured ſome intelligence of the place of her abode, haſtens in queſt of her. In his way, he unknowingly reſcues Salvini from the danger of being killed by a fall down a precipice; follows him to his houſe; and bears away Roſolie in triumph. He now eſpouſes her, and paſſes ſome time in all the joys of chaſte love. But his happineſs is at length overwhelmed by the loſs of his wife, who is ſeiſed in his abſence, again confined by Salvini, and inſidiouſly polluted by his adulterous luſt. Her death being occaſioned by this brutal treatment, the incenſed huſband murders Salvini, proclaims his guilt, and is condemned to death; but eſcapes from priſon, and dies in exile.

Such is the ſubſtance of this novel. The character of the hero is drawn with ſpirit: that of his friend Alberti is amiable and intereſting; and the language, though frequently inaccurate, is better than that of many of our recent novels. Upon the whole, we are of opinion that the author poſſeſſes ſome talents for fictitious narrative.

Henry of Northumberland, or the Hermit's Cell; a Tale of the Fifteenth Century. 3 Vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d. ſewed. Lane. 1800.

A deſultory, ill-conſtructed, and unintereſting tale.

Adeline St. Julian; or, the Midnight Hour; a Novel. By Mrs. Anne Ker, Authoreſs of the Heireſs di Montalde. 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. ſewed. 1799.

Many ladies, from the frequent peruſal of novels, acquire a ſet of phraſes which they know not how to apply, and treaſure up in their minds a variety of incidents, calculated to amuſe or aſtoniſh. If they have been praiſed by illiterate and ill-judging friends for their talents at letter-writing, though their epiſtles may have no other recommendation than pertneſs or vivacity, they conſider themſelves as fully qualified to write a novel which may gratify even the moſt judicious readers. With a ſmall ſhare of invention or of common ſenſe, and with ſtill leſs knowledge of the arts of compoſition, they enter upon the taſk of adding to the ſtock of the circulating library. They manufacture a tale from former works of narrative invention, with ſome trifling or abſurd alterations or additions, and advertiſe the produce of their futile labour as a new novel or romance. Mrs. Anne Ker appears to have followed this example; for her tale of Adeline is a wretched *farrago*, with no novelty of fable, no original delineation of character, and not even common accuracy of language. Deprecating, as we do, ſuch a proſtitution of the preſs, we adviſe this lady to relinquiſh the employment of writing for the public. Let the 'Midnight Hour' be involved in congenial darkneſs; and let the pretenſions of the 'Heireſs di Montalde' be conſigned to oblivion.

Harcourt; a Novel; by the Author of the Myſterious Wife, &c. 4 Vols. 12mo. 18s. ſewed. Lane. 1799.

This novel is not ſo deſpicable as many which we have had the misfortune to peruſe. The principal character is that of a ſpirited, generous, and virtuous young man, who, after appearing at firſt as an outcaſt, obtains great wealth and the honours of nobility. The characters of Sir Archibald Mackenzie and his wife are well drawn; the converſations introduced are frequently lively and entertaining; and ſome degree of intereſt is excited by the narrative. But we muſt add, that the work is unneceſſarily extended, that ſome of the incidents are trite, and that various parts of the novel are abſurd and frivolous.

MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

Philoſophy of Mineralogy. By Robert Townſon, LL. D. &c. 8vo. 7s. Boards. White.

As Dr. Townſon has not had encouragement to complete his promiſed work *, we muſt be contented with the preſent introduction, which is light, popular, and intelligible. It is a pleaſing and elegant guide to mineralogy, the firſt ſtep to the more recondite ſyſtems of Cronſtedt, Kirwan, &c. The author, in his haſte, has

* See Travels through Hungary, at the end.

committed ſome errors; for inſtance, where he ſpeaks of airs 'always exiſting in a ſtate of gas,' though component parts of foſſils. The reader who has peruſed the 'Philoſophy of Chemiſtry' may, perhaps, be diſguſted at the title; for M. Fourcroy's work is a comprehenſive view of the whole ſcience, while that of Dr. Townſon is only an introduction to his ſubject. We make this diſtinction with no invidious view, but to prevent miſtakes; for each has equal merit in his own department. The plates, particularly the frontiſpiece, illuſtrate with great neatneſs the appearances and formation of veins.

Journal of a Tour through the North of England and Parts of Scotland. With Remarks on the preſent State of the eſtabliſhed Church of Scotland, and the different Seceſſions therefrom: Together with Reflections on ſome Party Diſtinctions in England; ſhewing the Origin of theſe Diſputes, and the Cauſes of their Separation. Deſigned to promote brotherly Love and Forbearance among Chriſtians of all Denominations. Alſo ſome Remarks on the Propriety of what is called lay and itinerant Preaching. By Rowland Hill, A. M. &c. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Chapman. 1799.

This is a ſpecies of production which may be conſidered as independent of the tribunal of criticiſm, the number of its readers not being likely to be diminiſhed or increaſed by our cenſure or applauſe. The rev. Mr. Rowland Hill is well known as a leading preacher among the methodiſts, and, however eccentric may be the character of his pulpit eloquence, he deſerves, in our opinion, the reſpect and approbation due to a man of a reſpectable family, who, relinquiſhing undoubted expectations in the eſtabliſhed church, has for a ſeries of years ſincerely and actively devoted himſelf to the propagation of the Goſpel according to his notions of the truth.

Mr. Hill's tour contains no new topographical information, but will be intereſting to thoſe who wiſh to obſerve the progreſs of methodiſm in Scotland and the northern parts of England. It is written with that *naïveté* of manner by which the preaching of the author is diſtinguiſhed, and includes curious reflections on ſome diviſions in the Scottiſh church.

A Prayer and Sermon, delivered at Charleſtown, December 31, 1799, on the Death of George Waſhington, late Preſident, and Commander in Chief of the Armies of the United States of America; who departed this Life at Mount Vernon, in Virginia, on the 14th of the ſame Month, in the 69th Year of his Age. With an additional Sketch of his Life. By Jedidiah Morſe, D. D. Paſtor of the Church in Charleſtown. To which is prefixed, an Account of the Proceedings of the Town on the melancholy Occaſion. Written by Joſiah Bartlett, Eſq. 8vo. 2s. Stockdale. 1800.

The ſenſations of the ſubjects of the American republic on the death of their deliverer and hero, are juſtified, in our opinion, by

the singular worth of the character of Washington, which may challenge all antiquity to a comparison. Never did Greece or Rome boast of a patriot more tried, more disinterested, or more qualified for the station which he occupied. It may be true that Washington was not a man of splendid qualifications, but his qualifications were equally rare and more important than those of the most brilliant order; they were solid, enabling him exactly to appreciate the worth of others; they were under the guidance of a temper so equal, of a candor so liberal, of a conduct so exact, in the most minute particulars, that we believe it to be as uncommon to meet with a Washington in point of moral and intellectual qualification, as it is to meet with a Burke, a Cicero, or a Cæsar.—If we judge of the proceedings at Charlestown as men, we sympathise with the inhabitants in the expression of their just feelings; but, if we judge of these published documents as critics, we must pronounce upon them an unfavourable judgement. The prayer is declamatory and vulgar; and the sermon is chiefly employed in a dull and senseless comparison between the characters of Washington and Moses. One blemish appears on the character of Washington in common with that of many of the greatest patriots of antiquity: we allude to his encouragement of personal slavery upon his estates. We should have been glad that the American deliverer had wiped away this *damned spot* during his life, rather than have secured its extinction by his will.

Thoughts on Marriage, and Criminal Conversation, with some Hints of appropriate Means to check the Progress of the latter; comprising Remarks on the Life, Opinions, and Example of the late Mrs. Wollstonecraft Godwin: respectfully addressed and inscribed to the Right Hon. Lord Kenyon, Lord Chief Justice of the Court of King's Bench. By a Friend to social Order. 8vo. 2s. Rivingtons. 1799.

The author of these thoughts justly laments the frequency with which the connubial engagement is violated. The purity of that institution is indeed of the utmost importance to the welfare of civilised society; but we doubt whether the remedy proposed by the present writer, that of imprisoning the adulterer, be an eligible or a practicable mode of reforming the evil.

A Defence of the Sunday Schools: attempted in a Series of Letters, addressed to the Rev. M. Olerenshaw, in Answer to his 'Sermon on the Sanctification of the Sabbath, and on the right Use and the Abuse of Sunday Schools.' By J. Mayer. 12mo. 1s. Chapman.

Four Letters to Mr. J. Mayer, of Stockport, on his Defence of the Sunday Schools. By Thomas Whitaker, Minister of Ringway, Cheshire. 8vo. 6d. Chapman.

Candid Animadversions on the Rev. Thomas Whitaker's Four Letters. By J. Mayer, 12mo. 6d. Chapman.

We should have much regretted the necessity for a formal *defence*

of ſo excellent an inſtitution as Sunday ſchools, had we not found, upon a peruſal of theſe pamphlets, that the controverſy, carried on in them, deviated from the main queſtion into certain perſonal diſputes unintereſting to the public at large. Some of theſe ſchools may be improperly conducted, and ſome may be conducted with greater ſtrictneſs of diſcipline than others; but ſurely no plan can be formed more likely to produce a favourable change in the manners of the nation, than that which embraces the due obſervance of the ſabbath.

A Letter to the Rev. Percival Stockdale, in Conſequence of his late Letter, addreſſed to the Hon. and Rt. Rev. the Lord Biſhop of Durham, &c. 8vo. 6d. Treppaſs.

Poſtſcript of a Letter to the Rev. Percival Stockdale, in Conſequence of his late Letter, addreſſed to the Hon. and Rt. Rev. the Lord Biſhop of Durham, &c. The Poſtſcript in Reply to the Rev. Mr. Stockdale's late Addreſs to the Public. 8vo. 3d. Treppaſs.

The biſhop of Durham ſtands not in need of ſuch a defender; and, whatever may have been the conduct of the clergyman who is here attacked, the anonymous writer ſhows little regard to the ſpirit of that religion to which he ſo frequently alludes in his animadverſions on the object of his unchriſtian reſentment. We can ſcarcely believe that a new edition of this inſignificant publication has been deſired by the public, as it is aſſerted in the Poſtſcript; but, if a new edition has been called for, we preſume that the demand has ariſen from ſome local circumſtances of no conſequence to the public in general.

Some Account of the Proceedings that took place on the Landing of the French near Fiſhguard, in Pembrokeſhire, on the 22d February, 1797; and of the Inquiry afterwards had into Lieut. Col. Knox's Conduct on that Occaſion, by order of his Royal Highneſs the Commander in Chief: together with the official Correſpondence, and other Documents. By Thomas Knox. 8vo. 2s. No Publiſher's Name.

On the landing of the French at Fiſhguard, Mr. Knox haſtened to the ſpot, and made what appeared to him the neceſſary arrangements for diſcovering their ſtrength; and finding it inexpedient to attack them with the few men under his command, retreated towards Haverford-weſt to wait for the reinforcements which were hourly expected. In his retreat he was met by lord Cawdor, who informed him that, by appointment of the lord-lieutenant, he had aſſumed the command of the troops, which, by a recent letter, Mr. Knox underſtood had been given to colonel Colby. This put Mr. Knox into a dilemma for a few minutes; but colonel Colby having ſtated that he had given up the command to lord Cawdor, and that the preſent was not a fit time for diſputes, Mr. Knox followed his example, and put himſelf under the command of his lordſhip. Mr.

Knox received the thanks of the king for his conduct; but a letter from Mr. Haffall to Mr. Macnamara, which reprobated in strong language the conduct of Mr. Knox, led to an inquiry by an officer sent from the duke of York, in consequence of which Mr. Knox demanded a court-martial, or a public investigation of his conduct. Both were refused. The lord-lieutenant requested Mr. Knox, in the king's name, to resign his commission, which he did: he sent a challenge to lord Cawdor, which was accepted; and, when an attempt was made to bring the matter into a civil court, Mr. Macnamara informed Mr. Knox's solicitor that he was ready to fight Mr. Knox if he pleased. The subject is a very delicate one. The officers in Mr. Knox's corps bear testimony to his spirit and conduct: lord Cawdor calls the latter in question.

Substance of the Speech of the Rt. Hon. the Earl of Westmorland, in the House of Lords, on the Motion for the Recommitment of the Slave Trade Limitation Bill, on the fifth Day of July, 1799. *Published at the Request of the West-India Merchants and Planters. 8vo.* 1*s.* 6*d.* Rivingtons.

If this be the *substance* of a speech, what must be the shadow? Though the West-India merchants and planters may conceive that *any thing* spoken in favour of slavery in the house of peers must be important and wonderful, *we* are ready to acknowledge that we can learn nothing from this *substantial speech*, but that the earl of Westmorland and the West-India merchants and planters are not good judges of reasoning or of eloquence.

An Account of the Navies of Foreign Powers, particularly those of France, Spain, and Batavia, now at War with Great Britain: including a List of Frigates, Corvettes, and Sloops; also, the Navies of Russia, Sweden, Denmark, and Naples; with a comparative State of the Line of Battle Ships in the last War; and the present State of the British Navy. By James Browell, of the Royal Navy. 4to. 1*s.* Steel. 1799.

This account will not be useless, *if it be accurate*, of which, however, we entertain some doubts.

An Examination of the Merits and Tendency of The Pursuits of Literature. By W. Burdon, A. M. Two Parts. 8vo. Conder. 1799.

Labour ill directed.

ERRATUM.

In our last Volume, p. 389, line 9 from the bottom, *dele* the words *that of*.